



# EASTERN WORLD

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*Contents include :*

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**REFERENCE COPY**  
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Sharaku: The actors Nakamura Gwanzo and Nukajima Watayeimon  
(By courtesy British Museum)

Believing in the freedom of the press, this journal represents a forum where articles containing many different, and often controversial, opinions are being published. They do not necessarily express the views or policy of the paper.

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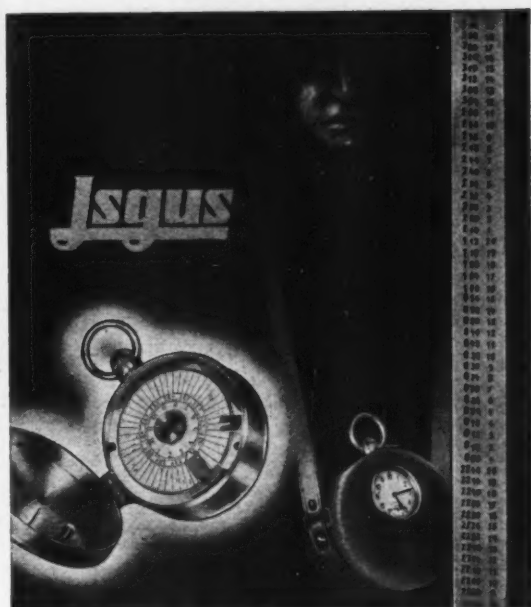
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# EASTERN WORLD

## MALAYA

THE news of the collective punishment meted out to 25,000 inhabitants of the Tanjong Malim area in Malaya, is bound to cause serious uneasiness to thoughtful people. There have been previous punitive actions before—such as mass evictions and the burning of villages—and the poor results as well as the human suffering they caused led one to expect that different methods would be employed in the future. Surely, logic will tell the responsible authorities that these ruthless actions taken against a population which is already terrorised by the bandits—and which would, as other examples show, be prepared to collaborate with the authorities if given the right protection—is only apt to kindle hostility against the Government and to counteract all the benefits of political and social progress.

## TECHNICAL AID TO SOUTH-EAST ASIA

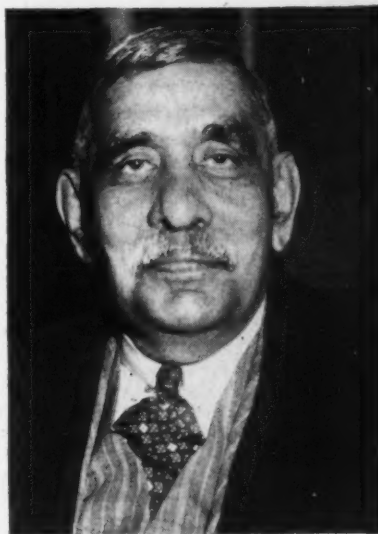
IN this issue we are publishing a number of contributions which illustrate the considerable amount of work done in connection with technical, medical and educational aid to South-East Asia. Parallel with these United Nations measures is the gigantic effort made under the Colombo Plan, which is one of the most heartening, imaginative and effective international schemes of our time. The sincerity of the offers made by the "donor" countries has allayed any suspicions which may have been harboured by the receiving countries, namely that the Colombo Plan would be an attempt by the West to recapture its former position in Asia. The meeting of the consultative committee of the Colombo Plan which took place in Karachi last month, and the success of the Colombo Exhibition, was a reminder that the Plan is not only alive but that encouraging progress has been made during the last year. India's decision to bring her five-year plan into line with the Colombo Plan, is a proof of the trust with which Asia views the success of the Plan. The Karachi meeting was significant as it was attended by the United States as well as by the original members. Siam, Indonesia and the Philippines, although not members, sent observers to Karachi and there is little doubt that the reports not only of blueprints but of the work achieved will induce them to join soon. The greatest problem facing the execution of the Plan is the present world shortage of capital goods and of technical experts, but the danger that the implementation of the Colombo Plan might be jeopardised by the armament programmes of the donor countries, now seems less imminent. Promises made by the United Kingdom delegates that Britain would do her best to deliver more heavy machinery and technical skill, show that she is prepared to make substantial sacrifices in spite of her heavy commitments elsewhere. Similarly,

the other participants of the Plan are contributing generously. Canada's strong support of the scheme, to which she contributes at the rate of \$25 million a year, has only recently been stressed by Mr. L. B. Pearson, her Secretary of State for External Affairs, when he underlined the importance of the various programmes of technical assistance to Asia. Australia's enthusiastic partnership involves the expenditure of £31,250,000 on economic development in South-East Asia and a further sum of £3 million to be spent on technical cooperation with that area. That the active interest of the United States has been aroused is not surprising considering her vast contribution under the Point Four programme. However, close contact with the Colombo Plan members may convince Washington that an all-out effort in assisting South-East Asia to raise its living standards may yet prove to be the best weapon against militant Communism.

## MR. D. S. SENANYAKE

BY the death of Mr. D. S. Senanayake, Ceylon and the Commonwealth have been robbed of a wise and far-sighted statesman. During his long political career he

showed adroitness and skill both as an administrator and as a politician. As Minister of Agriculture, he initiated schemes for jungle clearance and hydro-electric power which have proved to be major achievements in land reclamation. One of his most difficult tasks was to persuade the various racial elements of Ceylon to forgo communalism and to adopt a united policy in public affairs—and that he was successful in this is shown by the cooperation he received from the leaders of the minority communities. Mr. Senanayake's forceful personality, robust humour and integrity based on his Buddhist faith, will be greatly missed.



*The Ancient Korean Temple Painting reproduced in our last issue is now being exhibited at The Museum of Eastern Art (Indian Institute), Oxford, where it is on loan from the owners, the Berkeley Galleries, London.*

*The headline of the article by Arvid Bajverfeldt in our last issue should, of course, have read "Swedish Missionary Work in India."*

## WESTMINSTER AND THE EAST

By Harold Davies, M.P.

**A**LTHOUGH the Parliamentary scene has been dominated by the Budget and Defence debates, in the lobbies the underlying problems of the Far East come up constantly in our discussions. Within the Labour Party too, Asia has played no small part in creating doubts about the extent and effectiveness of the Defence programme. Can Britain's economy carry the burden of rearmament and at the same time further the aims of the Colombo Plan?

Unfortunately, the word "Bevanism" has been coined to cover the attitude of some members of the Labour Party who question the amount of the arms bill. This is due to the fact that Aneurin Bevan together with Harold Wilson and John Freeman resigned from their Ministerial posts over the size of the arms programme. When Labour was in power the party accepted its Cabinet's decisions and the Annual Conference more or less endorsed those decisions. Now with the party in Opposition, the Annual Conference again will become the sole policy making body. In its search for foreign policy the Labour Party head office is already producing some excellent material. Michael Young in his pamphlet, *Fifty Million Unemployed*, says: "One thing is certain about Labour's policy for the next election: it will give prominent place to the World Plan." The purpose of this pamphlet is to underline the necessity for the industrialised countries, such as Britain, to give aid to the peasant countries of Asia. The Foreign Affairs Group of both the main Parties in the House devote much attention to the ideological battle that accompanies the struggle in Asia.

To quote again Michael Young's pamphlet: "Western Democrats who believe that military action can itself stem Communism in Asia are playing into the hands of Russia, for Russia could want nothing better than that Western democracies should become bogged down in endless fighting in Asia. Lenin long ago declared that London and New York would meet their downfall on the Yangtze River. This warning should be yet another reason for concentrating on the economic aid which will help solve the 'land-question' in what remains of free Asia."

Here is a forthright statement in an official Labour Party pamphlet which although not a statement of party policy is considered of a sufficient general interest for publication to stimulate discussion in the Labour Movement.

The proposals of the Australian Government to slash her imports from Britain caused some foreboding on all the Benches when the announcement was made known. Miss Elaine Burton (Labour) was one of the first to express her fears about the effect

of the cuts on the motor industry in Coventry. Mr. Nabarro (Conservative) extracted from the President of the Board of Trade figures showing that carpets to the value of £11 million were exported last year to Australia. The President admitted that the effect will be serious because Australia has been taking almost half our total exports of carpets. Members from the Pottery Constituencies are telling the same story. There, too many factories are cutting down their labour through the loss of Australian markets.

The Australian crisis is a part of the whole Asian question. Members here realise the magnificent contribution of men and money to Britain in the war, but now the reality of Australia's Balance of Payments problem is stronger than sentiment.

Mr. Awberry (Labour) asked the Secretary of State if he is aware that the political approach is most important in rallying the people of Malaya to our assistance, and in a long and detailed written answer the Secretary of State for the Colonies, Mr. Lyttelton, assured him that he attached great importance to political progress in Malaya. Many members believe that if a definite date were fixed for this objective it would ease the Malayan situation, and there are those Members who say that if we expect the loyal cooperation of the Chinese, we must offer them some equality of citizenship and rights in Malaya. In Clause 3 of Sir Gerald Templer's Directive it is said: "There must be a common form of citizenship for all who regard the Federation or any part of it as their real home and the object of their loyalty." Could not this Clause be less ambiguous so far as the Chinese are concerned?

Members are apprehensive about the future of the Colombo Plan. It seems that the Government will support Japan's admission to the Plan but Australia and New Zealand have their doubts. When discussing this with some Japanese delegates who visited the House of Commons this month I found them keen to enter into the Colombo Plan. The United States would support Japan's participation in order to divert her trade from China. If there is a real slump in raw material prices in South-East Asia then the entire concept will be in jeopardy. The *Bulletin for Industry* shows that exports of tin and rubber from Malaya and Ceylon have, in the past three years, earned about as many U.S. dollars as have all U.K. exports to the U.S. The entire position of Malaya is dictated by these commodities. South-East Asia is living precariously on erratic dollar earnings. Can the Colombo Plan change any of this? Some of us here think it will be difficult even to try in the present atmosphere of the ideological war in Asia.

## MOSCOW AND ASIA

By V. Wolpert

**T**HE recent pronouncements by Soviet leaders, particularly Stalin's New Year message to the Japanese people, have again demonstrated the importance attached by Moscow to Asia.

At the recent commemoration meeting dedicated to the anniversary of Lenin's death, P. N. Pospelov, Director of the Marx-Engels-Lenin Institute, dealt at length with

the problems of Asia. Pospelov stressed that "as a result of the Second World War, the general crisis of capitalism entered a new stage . . ." and declared that:

"The crisis of the entire imperialist colonial system has become particularly acute in the present period. Hundreds of millions in Asia, whose peoples make up the majority of the world's population, have risen, and are continuing to rise, to active political life and struggle. . . . A gigantic anti-feudal



and anti-imperialist revolution is unfolding in the Asian countries, and is upsetting all the plans and calculations of the American-British imperialist ringleaders."

Moscow's interest in Asia is not new, since it was already prominent during the Tsarist regime. When the Revolution in the West, which the Soviet leaders expected and hoped would take place almost immediately after the First World War, did not materialise, Moscow began to pay even more attention to Asia, hoping to paralyse the West-European colonial powers by revolutionary upheavals in Asian colonies and semi-colonies. The Second Congress of the Communist International (1920), which adopted the Theses on Colonial Questions, the Communist Congresses of Eastern peoples, the Communist Pan-Pacific Trade Union Congress in Hankow, 1927, the Moscow Academy to train propagandists and agitators for the Eastern countries, which was established shortly after the Revolution, are only a few expressions of Moscow's concern for Asia during the first decade after the 1917 Revolution. It is interesting to note that the impact of the Russian defeat in China in the 'twenties on the Communist Party of the Soviet Union still remains to be described by a Western historian.

In March 1923, Lenin wrote that capitalism itself educated and trained the gigantic majority of the world's population to fight for their liberation, and he added that:

"... the outcome of the struggle depends, in the last account, on the fact that Russia, India and China comprise the gigantic majority of the population. . . ."

It is noteworthy that at that time Lenin named India before China. Later, however, the Kremlin's disappointment that the national-revolutionary struggle in India did not develop into a social-revolutionary struggle found its reflections in attacks against Gandhi and Nehru. Already in 1928, the Sixth Congress of the Comintern branded Gandhi's movement as treason to the real cause of the working class in India. The Diplomatic Dictionary, published in Russian in Moscow in 1950 (Chief Editor: the present Soviet Foreign Minister, Vyshinsky) described Nehru as follows:

"... Before coming to state power, during the years of the leadership of the National Congress, Nehru had basically a progressive policy in questions of foreign policy. But already during the Second World War Nehru occupied a half-hearted position of passive sympathy towards the struggle against the Fascist bloc, and after the War he stated in his first declaration, in his capacity as Vice-Chairman and Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Provisional Government of India, that India must remain outside the bloc headed by the U.S.A., as well as of the bloc headed by the U.S.S.R.

Since the establishing of the Dominion, Nehru's Government began to draw, on an increasing scale, India into the sphere of the Anglo-American bloc. . . ."

The article accused Nehru's Government of having rendered substantial assistance to the British authorities in their fight against the national liberation movement in Malaya, and explained that this attitude was due to fear, caused by the growth of the democratic movement in India

itself. Furthermore, Nehru was accused of having been the main organiser of the January 1949 Conference in Delhi, which allegedly had the task of uniting 17 Asian and Near East countries in a military-political bloc directed against the democratic and national-liberation movement in China and in other countries of South-East Asia and the Far East.

On the other hand, Nehru has described the Indian Communist Party as the most stupid party among the Communist Parties of the world, and it is noteworthy that not a single Indian Communist ever played a prominent role in the international Communist movement, with the exception of M. N. Roy, who is now a disillusioned Communist. In addition, there are several factions among the Communists in the Indian sub-continent, an unforgivable sin in Moscow's eyes.

It is significant that L. P. Beria in his speech at the Moscow Celebration Meeting, dedicated to the 34th anniversary of the Revolution, held on November 6th, 1951, describing the "weakness of imperialism's rear," did not mention India. He declared that this weakness "finds expression in the growth of the national liberation movement in the colonial and dependent countries," and he specifically mentioned Burma, the Philippines, Viet Nam, Malaya and Indonesia. The non-mentioning of India became even more significant by the fact that during the same speech, Beria, while attacking the San Francisco Japanese Treaty declared that:

"The value of this treaty is further reduced by the fact that India, the second largest Asian State in size and importance, had no part in its conclusion. . . ."

One year before, on November 6th, 1950, Marshal N. A. Bulganin, addressing the Thirty-Third anniversary meeting, dealt at length with the Stockholm Appeal of the World Peace Congress, and announced that about 500 million signatures had been already appended to the Appeal. He stated that 204 million persons in China had signed the Appeal, and while mentioning a number of countries, including Japan, and Korea, where millions of persons had signed the Appeal, India was not included in Bulganin's enumeration.

Recently Moscow's policy towards those Asian countries where the Communists did not achieve spectacular successes acquired a new, prominently displayed feature. Moscow emphasises the benefits which these countries could reap by increased and improved economic relations with the Soviet Union and the People's Democracies. The Soviet offer, made at the recent ECAFE Session, to supply capital goods which the countries of this region urgently need for the execution of their development plans, in exchange for raw products, the Soviet exhibition at the Bombay Fair, and the Soviet overtures towards Japan in the economic field are only a few expressions of this new trend. And the forthcoming Economic Conference in Moscow is, last but not least, beamed towards Asia and the Far East.

## ANTI-YAWS CAMPAIGN IN INDONESIA

By L. H. Palmier (*Banjumas, Indonesia*)

**I**NDONESIA lacks doctors: but since they form so large a part of the few highly educated, they have to help run the country. This, of course, aggravates the shortage of medical men." So spoke a doctor engaged in the UNICEF and WHO anti-yaws organisation here. Figures showing the growth of staff underline the shortage he asserted. In May, 1950, 5 full-time doctors and 30 male nurses comprised the organisation. Though now there are 6 part-time doctors, 153 male nurses and 19 field clerks, full-time doctors only amount to 7.

Yaws, or framboesia as it is often called, is neither venereal, congenital, nor fatal, but it causes agony to its victims, eats away their skin, flesh, tendons, and bones, and frequently leaves them crippled. Children particularly are prone to it: in the areas near Djakarta examined during the period of January to March, 1951, the age group from 3 to 10 accounted for 28 per cent. of all cases.

A highly infectious disease, its germs enter the skin at any weak point such as a cut, scratch, abrasion, or crack. In a few weeks' time the first "yaw" appears, to be followed by others elsewhere on the body. In course of time the sores heal, but the tissues in contracting may lock the joint. Healing does not mean cure: the germs remain latent, awaiting another favourable opportunity.

The best remedy is, very simply, to administer penicillin. Two injections are usually sufficient, but a third is sometimes necessary. Before the war, salvarsan was used in Indonesia, but this takes rather longer. Even penicillin does not guarantee a cure; estimates of the rate of relapse vary between 8 and 15 per cent.

Though yaws is exclusively found in the tropics, the precise conditions favouring it are not yet known. In Indonesia the towns are relatively free of it; and broadly speaking the poorer a district, the more liable to the disease. As yet, however, no direct relationship has been established between the disease and either dirt or insufficient food.

So far, no village has been found entirely free from infection, though an appreciable number show the incidence of the disease as 0.5 per cent. of the people examined. The worst are classified as between 35 and 40 per cent.

The total value of WHO and UNICEF's help is set at about £430,000, whereas the Indonesian Government pays one and a half million rupiah (about £70,000) per year whilst the campaign is in progress. WHO and UNICEF maintain a small staff in Indonesia, consisting of a Chief of Mission, and a bacteriologist, with a bio-statistician to come to replace a consultant who has left.

The staff of the organisation are faced with the task of

eradicating the disease from ten "target areas" which have a total population of roughly six million. Two of these areas, Djakarta and the "special area" of Jogjakarta account for half this total.

Male nurses, divided into teams of eight, check every village in the target area, staying in each for as long as necessary. (It is interesting, incidentally, that even in the troubled areas round Djakarta these teams, unlike other Government servants, are not molested by armed bands).

When a team arrives at a village, it explains its mission to the headman and asks him to call the villagers together for examination. Every single person must be checked, since one sufferer overlooked may reinfect the whole village. This painstaking screening is perhaps the most difficult and time-consuming task the teams have. The people do not think in terms of "hours" and cannot be split up into groups, each being told to come at a definite time. They have to be asked to come all together on a certain day. While they wait, the team works through them one by one. Then those who have received their first injection of penicillin must be requested to return on another day to receive a second. There is little or no reluctance to receive injections—in fact there is a dangerous tendency to look on them as panacea—but the claims of health compete with those of the fields, and often the latter win. Consequently there are always those who escape examination altogether and those who fail to return for the second or third injection. To cope with them it is therefore intended to have a second screening, going over the same areas as the first.

Figures now available show progress up to the end of October, 1951. The total population (within the ten target areas) scheduled for examination amounted to 1,734,676. Of these 1,125,401, or 64.8 per cent. have been examined. Of the total examined, 200,700 (17.8 per cent.) were found to have contracted the disease.

Since these figures cover the 18 months from May, 1950, to October, 1951, less than 100,000 people a month were to be examined. With the increase in staff, however, the monthly rate for August, September, and October, 1951, has risen to 165,000. If this is maintained, the first check should be over by January, 1954.

The present campaign is intended to be merely the beginning of a prolonged effort finally to eradicate a disease which was already in Indonesia when the Portuguese came, in the 17th century. But Indonesia has 76 million inhabitants, who multiply themselves fast; when I asked one of the doctors how long he thought it would take, his rueful answer was: "Fifty years, perhaps, perhaps."

## CURRENT NEPALESE AFFAIRS

*By Colonel R. G. Leonard*

SINCE the original insurrection there has been considerable lawlessness in Nepal due to the actions of the undesirable elements originally encouraged by the Congress Party. Those exiled and Indian-domiciled Gurkhas who were incited to form the rebel army were far from satisfied when, in spite of their defeat by the Nepalese troops, their Congress leaders were put into power by Pandit Nehru before they themselves had collected sufficient loot. Many broke away to instigate mob-rule in various parts of the Terai where they became dacoits of a most vicious type. One gang was led by the notorious Dr. K. I. Singh (his self-claimed title is due to his non-combatant service as an enlisted follower in the Indian Army Medical Corps!) who was only rounded up when a column of troops was specially detailed for the task. He later escaped from Bairhwa gaol.

The remainder of the insurgents, as a sop, were formed by the new Nepalese Government into the "Raksha Dal" or "The Army of Defence," so easily translated into modern language as The People's Army. These were given more favourable terms than the regular army and were taken on tour as escorts by Congress Ministers. In the capital, Katmandu, they were given most of the public guards including the Secretariat, Wireless Station, Airfield and gaol.

Deciding that they were not getting the Utopia prom-

ised by their official leaders they mutinied on January 22nd. Their first action was to open the gaol to release some of their more unorthodox leaders and amongst these was K. I. Singh who had again been re-captured. However, the revolt in the capital was quickly settled. K. I. Singh, according to his usual practice, had a fast horse ready and when things were looking gloomy disappeared into Eastern Nepal at a rate that would surprise even those who know the difficulty of the hill-paths. Here he eluded his pursuers over the high passes into Tibet.

It is reported that the Nepalese Government have requested the Government of Tibet to extradite K. I. Singh. There is still a Nepalese Ambassador at Lhasa but the question is, however, who will deal with this request? The Tibetans or their Chinese Overlords? For many years relations between Nepal and Tibet have been friendly and Tibet would certainly rather be without such a person as the "doctor" in its territory. On the other hand Chinese authorities might well find use for a man prepared to organise a Red Cell through which propaganda could be spread into Nepal (and further). Undoubtedly Singh would willingly work against the Congress Party of Nepal as strongly as he has ever worked against the Ranas. Dr. K. I. Singh is a man with a very high danger potential. He may well harm more than Nepal if he does not shortly face his legal charges.

## INDIANS IN CEYLON

*By Kumar Devarajah (Colombo)*

THE first Indians to arrive in Ceylon were Prince Vijaya and his followers who are said to have landed on the north-western coast of Ceylon nearly 2,400 years ago. Ceylon history tells us that most of these followers married wives from noble families in South India, probably the antecedents of the present-day Tamils. Indians have invaded Ceylon at different periods since then, leaving their mark on the art, literature and religion of the Island, since out of an estimated population of 7 millions, more than one and a half million are Hindus.

Many outsiders are puzzled by the existence of an Indian problem in Ceylon, for they ask "are not the Ceylonese originally from India?" remembering Vijaya's conquest and the Indian wives his followers married, but

the Ceylonese, even though their forefathers had Indian blood, have through the centuries cultivated a new outlook so that there is nothing in common between the Ceylonese and the Indians of today.

More than a million people in Ceylon are Indians, but this minority has not intermingled with the Ceylonese population. The best evidence of integration is inter-marriage but Indians, the majority of whom are Hindus, have not married Sinhalese, the majority of whom are Buddhists. Even marriages between Indian Hindus and Ceylonese Hindus or Indian Christians and Ceylonese Christians have been rare, while there have been a few cases of marriages between Indian Muslims and Ceylonese Muslims.

One of the reasons that prompted the Ceylon



Government to launch its Ceylonisation policy was the marked absence of Ceylonese employees in Indian mercantile firms. Even though the Ceylon Government has made provisions to enable many Ceylonese to take up trading, the bulk of the business of the Island is in the hands of Indians. Many of the larger firms, however, are European-owned and these firms employ a large number of Ceylonese as subordinates and even in executive posts. The Indian firms usually employ their countrymen in preference to Ceylonese.

The living standard of the Indian in Ceylon is much lower than that of the Ceylonese and while a Ceylonese mercantile employee would require a salary of at least 150 rupees a month to exist on, the Indian mercantile employee is satisfied with half that amount. Rich Indians in the Island own large tea, rubber and coconut estates and residential quarters and it has been found that an Indian landlord prefers to rent out his house to an Indian rather than to a Ceylonese. Whereas a Ceylonese family would prefer a house of their own, more than 2 or 3 Indian families live in one house, thus pooling the rent and in some cases paying black-market rates to the landlord.

The majority of Indians in Ceylon work on the estates. The Ceylonese labourer demands a higher wage but the Indian who comes from South India is willing to work for a lower wage, so it is only natural that the estate owners prefer to employ the Indian coolie, for not only does he work for a low wage but he also works harder than his Ceylonese counterpart. There is much animosity towards the Indian coolie on account of this.

The Ceylonese do not grudge the Indians the comfortable position they are holding in the Island, but they want them to become assimilated, which the majority of Indians are unwilling to do. It is because of the adamant attitude of those Indians who refuse to make Ceylon their permanent home that the Ceylonese object to any concessions being granted to them to influence the political and economic life of the Island.

The right to vote, both in Parliamentary elections and in elections of local bodies is the cause of the dispute between the Indians in the Island and the Ceylon Government. It really began with the grant of universal suffrage by the Donoughmore Commission when the question arose as to whether those Indian labourers who did not have an abiding interest in the welfare of the Island should be permitted to vote when they were actually "birds of passage." The Indians have all along protested that they are being treated shabbily even though they have abiding interests in the Island. As far back as 1923, the then Attorney-General (Sir Henry Gollan) said: "It will look as if there was manifest danger of these village committees and councils becoming rather Indian village councils than Ceylon village councils."

The Indian Government started to retaliate by imposing checks on the flow of Indian labour to Ceylon, forgetting that they were hitting their own countrymen, for it is evident that in South India, where the bulk of Indian immigrants come from, conditions are very poor when compared with those which exist in any part of Ceylon. The large number of illegal immigrants from India with harrowing tales of the unemployment and starvation is a proof in itself.

Soon after Ceylon became a dominion, Indians in Ceylon were afraid that they might be asked to leave the country, and that all their wealth and property would be confiscated by the Ceylon Government. Like a few European firms, some Indian firms sold their businesses and left the Island for good, but the majority of them remained.

There was agitation from the Ceylonese businessmen that the Indians were throttling their businesses. Several rich Ceylonese wanted to start trading and required assurance from the Government that their interests would be safeguarded. For this purpose, many Ceylonese were granted open licences to trade with foreign countries, but this met with failure as several of these newcomers were merely pawns in the hands of big Indian businessmen who financed their projects and kept themselves in the background.

The Ceylon Government is now pursuing a policy of Ceylonisation and wants all Indians in Ceylon to become Ceylon citizens, failing which they are threatened with serious repercussions. A dead-line was set and the Ceylon Indian National Congress began to blame the Ceylon Government for making unfavourable conditions for the Indians. Although several leading Indians who have been in Ceylon for a considerable number of years have now become Ceylon citizens, the majority have not done so and the time limit has now passed. There are nearly 100,000 applications which have to be dealt with, but this does not mean that each of these applicants will be successful in obtaining Ceylonese citizenship.

The question the average Ceylonese asks now is whether these Indians are becoming Ceylonese in order to fortify their present position in the Island and whether when they reach the age to retire they would want to abandon their Ceylon citizenship rights and revert to their original nationality. This would mean that they would be able to take away from the Island all the money they possessed.

It is too early now to answer this question—a few years later those Indians who have been granted Ceylon citizenship rights may be able to supply the answer themselves.



# SOME IMPRESSIONS OF NEW CHINA

By Peter Townsend

YOU notice it immediately you land in Hong Kong from the mainland; the attempt to view China's Revolution honestly and calmly is almost over. And it was at that point that I first recalled the peasant who sat beside me on the Peking-Tientsin express, a tall, well-built man, balancing on his knees a bundle of clothes, going like many thousand other peasants to the North China Industrial Exhibition being held in Tientsin, astonished by the city, astonished at venturing so far. Next day he was one of the crowd I pushed through to look at the first car, the first X-ray films, the first 150 h.p. diesel engines to come out of Chinese factories. As our conversation had advanced to meet each other on the train he had asked me, "Do farmers eat noodles in England? Do you have landlords like ours? Why do you have food shortages in England?" A string of questions, obvious enough, but surprising from an old peasant. He was going beyond the accustomed village horizon. His mind, too, was travelling, and Heaven, says the proverb, will not delay a traveller . . . but custom and prejudice will do what Heaven dares not.

Superficially, nothing in China to-day is as impressive as the financial stability. One recalls the unmanageable bundles of notes of a few years ago, the housewife's inability to budget her family income, the rush of workers to cast their wages into commodities on each pay-day. Against this, one places the present. Stability has had an enormously settling effect, freeing industry and business from disastrous price fluctuations and ending the wage-earners' uneasiness, together with inflation and the black market. Because the workers no longer take days off to hunt for the cheapest commodities on their pay-days, absenteeism has dropped. Because prices remain stable the factory workers in Tientsin no longer use bags of flour, the hedge against hunger, as pillows, to be eaten when need arises. Because a fair price is offered them, the peasants do not exercise their one hold over the city—refusal to deliver grain and foodstuffs. Millet, for instance, the North China staple, remained around 1,000 People's Currency a catty for the greater part of the second half of 1951. The calm was strange after a decade of violent inflation.

When, the strangeness worn off, one sought for the reason for this stability, these adequate supplies of grain, at every point one arrived at land reform. Whether one went by way of the improved transportation implicit in adequate supplies for the cities, the more rapid freight turnrounds, the repair of lines like the Paochi-Tienshui Railway in the north-west or the construction of the Chungking-Chengtu line in Szechuan, or

whether one went by way of the grain distribution system set up to fill the vacuum left by the destruction of the old landlord-merchant credit and commodity exchange relations, a system rapidly expanding and largely dependent on the co-operatives with their total membership of 50 millions, the final answer lay in land reform. The customers for the one, moreover the capital for the other, sprang from the revolution in land tenure which at the end of 1951 had already encompassed a rural population of 310 millions, and by the end of this year will have reached another 90 millions.

A high official of the People's Government, asked how it was that China, recently a grain-importing country, could export 300,000 tons of grain to India without affecting her own living standards, replied, "Four words *t'u ti kai ke*. Land reform." One can describe this total upset as the dividing up of an estimated 1,400,000,000 *mow* of arable land among the rural population of 400 millions, giving to each man, woman, and child an average of 3.5 *mow*, a little over half an acre a head. The profitability of small holdings is a question for the future, but industry is already helping to solve it by attracting surplus rural labour. North-Eastern industry, which in 1950 accounted for 35 per cent. of all North-Eastern production, raised the percentage to more than 50 in 1951, and most of its new workers were absorbed from the peasantry. The importance of land reform, however, lies in its immediate, short-range results, as a destroyer of landlord power and an increaser of crops. It cannot be described better than in the details of one village.

In the autumn of 1950 I visited a village in a rice-growing district of Hopei province which had passed through land reform a few months before. From a community of 96 families, dominated by four landlords, and chiefly made up of tenants working rented small holdings, it had become a community of 96 land-owning families. The landlords' holdings were reduced to sufficient to feed themselves and their families, provided they worked the land, the poor peasants' holdings were slightly increased, and the tenants given title to the land they tilled. The peasants, as the repositories of village knowledge, had themselves divided the land, scrupulously and according to its worth, and from paying rents and taxes which formerly accounted for 70 per cent. of the crops they had come to pay a simple agricultural tax equivalent to less than 20 per cent. Several tons of grain and many agricultural implements were taken from the landlords and divided. In these the peasants had a small but essential form of capital, but they needed more. Two years ago they had borrowed from the landlords to carry

them through till the spring harvest, repaying a bushel of grain with two bushels. At this point, land reform being completed, a district co-operative offered them loans, at one to two per cent., or less. Opportunity was offered them. How would it be taken?

Of many peasants I questioned, the answer of one was the answer, in many ways, for all. "When I've never put more than 500 catties of fertiliser," said one old peasant, "this year I've put a thousand." An evil of landlordism, neglect of the land by landlords preoccupied by rents and peasants whose initiative had been killed by exaction, had been overcome. The peasants were more careful of it. They worked longer hours. Possession of land made the fruits of toil accessible. Neither good weather nor chance could be credited with the fact that their first post-land reform harvest was 15 to 20 per cent. higher than the previous one. It was simply that Sun Yat-sen's cry of "Land to the tillers" was now time-tested. Its application to tens of thousands of villages and the crop increases consequent upon it were the biggest factors in balancing China's budget. It was responsible for the mildness of the inflationary trend following the Korean war—some 13 per cent. in certain commodities in North-Eastern and North China, a trend offset by the continuing process of land reform south of the Yangtse. Its influence on industry was like a curative injection in the arm of a sick man.

In the farthest courtyard of the temple where the co-operative, the Peasant Association and village government were housed, a harvest nursery had been opened to free women for work in the fields. On the outskirts a rope-making plant with a dozen treadle machines which twisted rice straw into thick, rough rope was being wired for electricity so that it could operate during the winter, for already the village labour force, better organised, was showing a surplus and this was being drawn into side occupations. Sitting in the dark, crowded co-operative store the co-operative manager, the chairman of the Peasants' Association and the village head, themselves peasants of the locality, confirmed, with tangible evidence, that the peasants were putting a minimum of half their earnings back into the land, and were buying more. Tools, carts, rubber boots and torches, towels, thermos flasks and cloth, were coming into the village in larger volume. On the shelves of the store I noticed notebooks and toothpaste, strange items in the countryside. "Does anyone buy them?" I asked. "Buy?" he said. He pointed to the entries for the previous week—"Nine notebooks. Seven tubes toothpaste."

The increased standard of living which the peasant enjoys is paralleled by a similar rise for the workers. During the autumn of 1951 I kept a record of workers'

wages in North China. Among these figures (to instance one or two) were masons earning 900 catties of millet a month (paid in currency on the basis of the current price of grain); women textile operatives in Tientsin 600 catties plus lodging, a creche for their infants, and free schooling for their children; and skilled workers in a variety of trades earning between 600 and 800 catties a month. In some cases these wages represented a rise of nearly 100 per cent. All compared favourably with the average pay of government officials living in the cities—300 catties.

To the overwhelming impression of economic stability one must add the strength of unity. Land reform, with its issuance of title deeds—"a title deed to land is like a hoop to a barrel" runs the proverb—has made the peasant regard himself as an individual.

It would be wrong to imply that New China is meeting with no difficulties. In the field of industry there are shortages of skilled workers, technicians, certain raw materials, much equipment. But it would be worse to underestimate the confidence which stability has generated and the unity which identification with government has brought to overcome many of these deficiencies. To instance one small item from my personal knowledge: In 1949 China was importing water meters chiefly from Britain. She did not make any herself. By 1950 I found them being produced in Tientsin, and later the same year in Shanghai, in considerable quantities. The same could be reported of many more essential items.

Nor should the country's unity be considered a static or diminishing quantity. Missionaries and business men unsympathetic to the government have told me, "Things are better for the common people. The government has their support." Foreign business men have told me of the support their Chinese staff, hitherto the most wary and uprooted group, give to the government. I have been amazed to find Chinese capitalists and business men of my own acquaintance who a year ago had many reservations now dropping these reservations. An observer in China today must record a degree of unity and approval of government unthinkable ten years ago.

There have, of course, been counter-revolutionary activities, widespread until mid-1951, when the government succeeded in suppressing or isolating them. But lacking any popular appeal, and often led by the most unpopular elements in the population, counter-revolution within the country has at no time posed a serious threat to government. Nor has the Korean war. It has, on the contrary, united the people as no single thing could do. For coming with its implied threat to China at a time when some of the benefits of peace and reconstruction were ripe for enjoyment, its drawing power has been strong enough to sweep into the current of national endeavour many who might have come to it more slowly and cautiously.

# CHINA—A NEW MILITARY POWER

By Wilfred Ryder

COMMUNIST CHINA cannot be ranked as a major military power for, despite the size of her army, she lacks a heavy industry capable of producing arms; her communications are poor; and she has virtually no sea or air power. These weaknesses are now being remedied. China is setting out to become a major military power. When she has achieved her aim, the balance of power between the Communist and non-Communist world, particularly in the Far East, will weigh heavily in favour of the former.

An important change in policy was decreed by the Chinese Communist Government last October: it was to postpone the industrial development of the country, and to give priority instead to the building of a heavy industrial war machine. The decision was given a cloak of popular approval by the National Committee of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference (CPPCC) which met in Peking in October. Chou En-lai, Chinese Premier and Foreign Minister, winding up the conference, said that the Chinese Red Army must struggle "for the establishment and building up of a strong and modernised national defence force. Production in our country must serve the purpose of strengthening our national defence forces." The Chinese Deputy Premier, Chen Yun, had earlier told the Committee that "investment for economic construction in 1952 will concentrate primarily on productive enterprises relating to national defence."

The change is a very definite one. Hitherto it had been proclaimed that the first economic task of the Communist Government was to restore the country's peaceful economy. A leading Communist figure, Jen Pi-shih, in a report to the New Democratic Youth League in April 1949, stated that it would take China some three to five years to rehabilitate the national economy and restore pre-war levels of production, or in the case of Manchuria and some sections of North China, the higher levels achieved by the Japanese in the late 1940's. In the early summer of 1950 plans were announced for the initiation of a first Five Year Plan for 1951 to 1955 to "restore and build up the national economy." This was to be the first step in the transformation of China into an industrial country which Jen Pi-shih said could be accomplished within ten to thirteen years. To do this, China's pre-war industrial production, which would be a mere 10 per cent. of her gross industrial and agricultural production when normalcy would be achieved in three to five years, would have to be raised to 30 or 40 per cent.

But when these tasks of peaceful reconstruction and industrial development were laid down the Korean war had not got properly under way and the U.S. Seventh Fleet was not preventing the invasion of Formosa which had been fully prepared. China entered the Korean war in November, 1950 as U.S. forces approached the Manchurian border. By June 1951 it was becoming obvious that the Chinese army was no match for the modern armies of the United Nations. The U.S.S.R. agreed and M. Malik proposed a Korean truce.

There is reason to believe that by this means the Soviet Union hoped to be able to avoid the enormous task of supply-



Naval Parade in Peking

ing the equipment that would make the Chinese Red Army into an efficient modern army. But Red China persisted in her requests for modern Soviet equipment for she is determined, after her experience in Korea, to have a modern army. The Soviet Union has had to give way and that equipment is now being given in some quantity; radar-directed anti-aircraft guns are, for instance, taking a steady toll of UN aircraft in Korea.

The Chinese Communist army is publicly stated to have a strength of 5,000,000 men. It is backed by a militia in the towns, villages and the countryside from which reserves can be drawn. Chou En-lai told the National Committee in October that this militia now numbers 12,800,000 men and that 7,500 militia training courses are now operating throughout the country. The militia, he said, is "an important force for consolidating the people's democratic dictatorship and safeguarding the fruits of the emancipation." Since the Korean war began on June 14, 1950, there has been no question of the partial demobilisation decreed by the Chinese CP Central Committee on June 6, 1950. Youths of 16 "and under" are now being recruited for training for the Chinese Army. The age limit for the many new training schools for the Air Force, the Army and Navy, opened in the second half of 1950, has been lowered to 17. But youths two or three months below 17 will be admitted "if tall, healthy and strong." To certain types of military training schools not yet specified, the age limit is lowered to 16 "so as not to deprive younger students of a chance to join up." Enrolment, it is stressed, is "strictly voluntary," but the Chinese Government hoped that boys will "respond energetically."

One of China's greatest military weaknesses has been her inability to move her vast army. For the weakest link in her economy is communications. From North to South along the coast she is well supplied with railways, but from North to South



in the interior there are great gaps. Li Fu-chun told the CPPCC that "the development of communications and transport should serve the needs of defence." At the same time it was announced that the gaps in China's internal communications are to be made good by the construction of two trunk lines totalling 5,000 km., linking North-West and South-West China with the rest of the country. These new lines, it is believed, will run from Lanchow southwards to Chengtu, Chaotung and Kunming, which is linked by rail with Hanoi in Indo-China; and eastwards from Chaotung on this north-south line to Kweiyang and Changsha on the Peking-Hanoi line. A smaller line would then be built to link Chungking with Kweiyang on this east-west line.

When the Chinese Red Navy was formed in the summer of 1949 it had only 100 torpedo boats and destroyer escorts, of mixed U.S., Japanese and Russian types, and a few U.S. and Japanese landing craft, some armed trawlers and thousands of motor-driven junks with reinforced decks to take artillery. Since then the Soviet Union has been training men of the Chinese Navy and many of the Soviet Navy ships and submarines to be seen in Chinese ports have probably been handed over or lent for training. Nor are reinforced motor-driven junks to be despised. They are almost unassailable by gunfire; and they proved their worth in the taking of several small North Korean islands in December 1950, in the face of opposition from the guns of the British Navy.

The Chinese air force is still a comparatively modest force. The most conservative estimates put its strength at 1,000 aircraft, one half of which are modern jets of the Russian MIG 15 type. In other words it is getting the best jets in quantity production today. Personnel of the Chinese air force are being trained by Russian instructors at schools in Manchuria and are getting battle training, from the safety of Manchurian bases, in sorties into North Korea.

Why should the Chinese Communists be so pre-occupied with building a vast war machine if they are moving towards a truce in Korea? The answer seems to be that China is determined to have Formosa, which Mr. Vishinsky has said is the key to peace in the Far East. And if Formosa cannot be obtained by peaceful means then China seems prepared to try force, when she is ready. Chou En-lai told the National Committee on October 25 that the Chinese people have "determined to liberate Formosa from the grip of the American aggressors and will never relax until they have achieved that end."

China fears that America is going to use Formosa as the base for invasion of China as did Japan. It must be admitted that the unguarded utterances of some American officials only encourage this belief. Maj.-General Chase, leader of the American Military Mission in Formosa, in his New Year's message to the Chinese Nationalists on the island, said they must make themselves ready for "whatever action is called for, whether it be on this island or in other troubled areas." His training programme for the 500,000 Nationalist forces gives special attention to amphibious operations and landing tactics. His explanation that this is merely to enable the defenders of the island to counter-attack an invading army from the sea if it should succeed in landing, is hardly tenable. His mission has planned and given technical advice for the building of a formidable system of beach defences on the coast facing the mainland. These would make a Communist landing difficult.

The Chinese Nationalists moreover are openly planning for the day when they will be able to re-invade the mainland. They expect this will be possible in the event of a revolt within

Communist China, of an outright Sino-American war, or more probably of an intensification of Chinese Communist support for the Viet Minh rebels in Indo-China.

Determined as Communist China is to get Formosa, it is becoming more and more impossible for the U.S. Government to see it go, not only for strategic but also for humanitarian reasons. Many of those executed in the recent purges in China have been officers in the former Nationalist army. The U.S.A. cannot hand over the 500,000 Nationalist soldiers now in Formosa to the same fate. The only answer to this impasse seems to be a trial of strength between Red China and the U.S.A.

The second reason for Communist China's decision to make herself into a major military power is that since the signing of the Japanese Peace Treaty and the U.S.-Japanese Security Pact at San Francisco last September she is even more convinced than by the U.S. protection of Formosa that the U.S.A. is preparing to attack her. On September 18, Chou En-lai said that the treaty was "only a treaty for reviving Japanese militarism . . . a preparation for a new war of aggression." The Security Pact "aims at clearing the road to the rearmament of Japan and turning her completely into a U.S. military base. It is unmistakable evidence that the U.S. Government is preparing for another war of aggression in Asia and the Far East on an even bigger scale. The Central People's Government of the Chinese People's Republic considers that the San Francisco Treaty and the Security Pact . . . constitute a serious threat to the security of the Chinese People's Republic. The Chinese people will certainly oppose with firmness, to the very end the vicious scheming of the U.S. Government."

On China's National Day, October 1, last, Chu Teh, C-in-C. of the People's Liberation Army, issued an Order of the Day in which he said that the U.S.A., which is "occupying our Taiwan," is preparing for a new war by signing a separate peace treaty with and rearming Japan. "The danger of war threatens the security of our Motherland and peace both in the East and in the world. I order you, therefore, to stand firm at your fighting posts with vigilance, to strengthen further the construction and consolidate the national defences of our Motherland, to study unconceitedly and in earnest so as to master new techniques and learn the skill of the co-ordinated operation of all arms, to raise the level of military science and the art of leading troops, to strengthen further the planning, organisation and precision of all aspects of work, to consolidate and raise the level of military discipline, and to strive to build up modernised internal defence forces. Strive for the liberation of Taiwan, Penghu (Pescadores), Kinmen, and other islands, and for the great cause of unifying all China."

Communist China is convinced that by denying her Formosa, by rearming Japan and seeking to maintain bases there, the U.S.A. is preparing to go to war against her. She is therefore actively preparing to meet what she considers the threat to her security from American policy in Formosa and Japan. She has turned all her energies to building modern forces backed by an efficient armaments industry and communications network in order to enable her to do so. There is no need for her to attack the U.S. Fleet guarding Formosa or U.S. bases in Japan; all that is necessary is to continue the 'volunteer' war in Korea until the American people force their government to seek terms, or to send 'volunteers' to Indo-China, Malaya and Burma in order to make France and Britain urge the U.S. Government to seek terms. If in this process general war should come, then the Soviet Union, by the terms of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1950, is pledged to come to her aid.



# THE MAGICAL POWER OF KINGS

By O. M. Green

"It may well be . . . that we have here in Britain stumbled back to the original, true and abiding function of Monarchy, which lay in the magical power of Kings—in modern language, in their power to represent, express and affect the aspirations of the collective subconscious."

**H**OW far back the writer of these words in the *Observer* after King George's death, may have been thinking one does not know, but in them he has aptly described what was the basis of Chinese political teaching for nearly 4,000 years, possibly more.

It may seem strange to be talking of Chinese Emperors when the cold heel of Communism is striving to stamp out every vestige of the traditional Chinese culture. But Shih Hwang Ti tried to do the same 2,000 years ago when he burnt the books of the Confucian scholars and buried the scholars alive: his reign lasted only 11 years and China then at once swung back to the old teaching. China—and what she is to be—is now in the front of the world's attention. And it is not uninteresting to see how closely the oldest extant civilization anticipated the thoughts so much in our minds to-day. It is the most striking example of the oft-noted similarities between Chinese and British thinking.

Nothing could be more erroneous than to think of Chinese Emperors as autocrats and tyrants. No doubt some were. But even that unconscionable old tyrant the Empress Dowager was wont to quote scripture to prove her faithfulness to the old maxims. The whole duty of the Emperor as taught by the wisdom of the ages was virtue in himself and service to his people. Imperial edicts certainly were couched in the language of command, ending with the admonition to "tremble and obey." They were none the less representative of the assembled wisdom of the Emperor's Ministers, framed with careful regard for the weight of public opinion.

For, in effect, the gist of the matter was that the Emperor reigned but did not rule. The State, according to classic teaching, was an enlarged family, to be reasoned with, not commanded; and the Emperor, as its head, must be a unique man, living apart, holding office by his own virtue, and by the example of that virtue, not by physical force, ensuring the happiness of his people which was his ceaseless responsibility.

This was the core of Confucius's teaching, for proof of which he constantly went back to the golden age of the Sage Kings in the third millennium B.C., to show that a nation is made happy and prosperous in proportion to the moral example set by the Emperor. And Lao Tze,

founder of Taoism, a slightly older contemporary of Confucius, warned the rulers of his day that to make laws merely tempted people to break them (a truth we have certainly realised in recent years) and that on their personal virtue alone depended the people's welfare. In fact, Chinese history is remarkable for its paucity of legislation.

As the "Son of Heaven" the Emperor held "the mandate of Heaven," not for his own glorification, but to be Heaven's vice-regent to care for the people. Every December at the winter solstice he must spend the night fasting in the Temple of Heaven and in the cold, clear dawn of North China sacrifice to Heaven and his ancestors, report to them on national events in the preceding year, and confess his own shortcomings.

But if the Emperor's power was best to be exercised in being, not doing, he was no *faiseur*. Whether the Sage Kings ever really existed no one knows. But they are firmly established in China's annals as synonymous with the elementary virtues and authors of her progress. Fu Hsi taught his people husbandry and how to play on musical instruments; his Queen, Hsi Ling, taught them to cultivate and weave silk—whence silk has always been known as "the royal trade"; Yu tamed the Yellow River; and Yao was so intent on works for his people that he would not turn back to see his first son, born in the early morning, but waited until the day's duties were done. Moreover, it was always the Emperor's first care to keep a sharp watch on the viceroys and other officials to whom his authority in the provinces was entrusted, that they did not oppress the people.

To such high exacting ideals few could attain, though some did—Wen, the Han Emperor about 2,000 years ago; Hung Wu, the Buddhist ex-monk, founder of the Ming dynasty. K'ang Hsi, one of the greatest monarchs who ever reigned, never ceased, though he was a Manchu, to stress the importance of the spirit of Confucianism. But from this conception of the ideal ruler flowed two notable results, which exactly correspond with British practice and feeling to-day.

The first was the rooted conviction that the duty of the State is to the individual and not *vice versa*. Until modern times Shih Hwang Ti (221-210 B.C.) already mentioned was the only monarch who tried to introduce totalitarian rule, and it vanished like morning mist on his death, just as happened in England after the death of Cromwell, our only dictator.

The second was the seeming paradox, that, under an apparently all-powerful Emperor, the Chinese were essentially democratic. They were singularly free from bureaucratic trammels, moving about the country as they pleased. It was possible through the State examinations, indeed it frequently happened, for a peasant's son to become a viceroy. Much of the practical work of government, road-making and the like, was done by guilds and the councils of village elders, like our British local government. So long as the people paid their taxes and lived

quietly nobody interfered with them. There was, of course, no parliament, but in ways of their own the Chinese people could make their wishes known and the wisest Emperors never disregarded them. When the Throne disregarded its duty to the people, it was the people's acknowledged right to rebel, as they always did when a dynasty became effete and sunk in its own pleasures.

How will these immemorial principles, often indeed grossly abused yet interwoven in the very fibre of Chinese nature, fit in with the Communist regime?

## AIR LINK WITH ASIA

*By A Special Correspondent*

**S**INCE the end of the second World War the whole of South-East Asia has been passing through a period of unprecedented development in many directions. This process, manifest in vast social and engineering projects designed to improve the standards of agriculture and industry, and through them the health and well-being of the population, is one which will increase in tempo for many years to come.

The Governments of the South-East Asian countries, in some cases with the assistance and advice of various United Nations agencies, or of European experts in different fields, are embarking on schemes to stamp out disease, to bring the benefits of liberal education to their peoples, to irrigate vast areas of unproductive land, and to open up their territories as rapidly as possible.

The success of such vast programmes depends to a great extent on the maintenance of rapid and efficient means of communication between the different countries in

the area, and between them and other parts of the world. The transport of men and materials is a vital factor in such large-scale projects, and modern air travel facilities are playing an important role in this great enterprise.

The British airline—B.O.A.C.—is proud to know that its services are contributing to the eventual successful completion of the work that is being carried out. The Corporation's fleet of fast, pressurised airliners today operates frequent services linking the countries of South-East Asia to each other and to the Middle East and Africa, Europe, America, and Australasia.

After the war, B.O.A.C.—in common with the countries of South-East Asia—was faced with the task of re-organising its economy and structure for peace-time activities. During the war the Corporation flew its unarmed aircraft in support of British and Allied Forces in many theatres of operations. When the war was over it was left initially with a miscellaneous collection of airliners—nearly all conversions of military types of aircraft—with which to re-build and expand the air routes of the British Commonwealth and other territories in various parts of the world, including the Far East.

For some time the Corporation had to work with Hythe and Plymouth flying-boats, which became well-known on the routes through Pakistan, India, Burma, Malaya, Siam, Hong Kong and Japan, and with York and Lancastrian landplanes. These types were superseded as rapidly as possible by the modern pressurised four-engined aircraft—Argonauts, which now serve most points in South-East Asia, and Constellations, which operate from London through South-East Asia to Australia.

Later this year B.O.A.C. will become the first airline in the world to operate pure-jet airliners when it introduces the de Havilland Comet into regular commercial service. It is intended that this revolutionary aircraft, which flies at speeds up to 500 m.p.h. at 35,000-40,000 feet, will be operating between London and Singapore later this year. As B.O.A.C. gradually receives its full fleet of Comets they will come into service on more routes



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Another airliner which will eventually be seen in the B.O.A.C. colours at aerodromes in South-East Asia, and other parts of the world, is the Bristol 175. Powered by prop-jet engines—jets driving the conventional airscrew—this airliner will be able to seat more than 90 passengers on tourist class services. It is expected that delivery of Bristol 175s to B.O.A.C. will start in 1953 or 1954.

In addition to providing swift, comfortable and regular transport for Government officials, engineers, and other people concerned with the development of South-East Asia, B.O.A.C. is always ready to undertake special work for which it is fitted. At the time of the partition of India and Pakistan, for instance, a fleet of B.O.A.C. aircraft was employed to help in the transfer of population between the two countries.

As important as the amenities of the Corporation for the carriage of passengers is its transport of freight. This has been of particular value in South-East Asia in recent months. B.O.A.C. maintains a fleet of 10 York freighters and there is a regular twice-weekly cargo service with these aircraft between London and Singapore. Stops are made at Tripoli, Cairo, Bahrain, Karachi, Delhi, Calcutta and Bangkok. The Yorks have roomy fuselages ideal for the carriage of bulky consignments. The floors are specially strengthened to take heavy cargoes and there are large double doors to facilitate loading and unloading.

Among the most popular items of air cargo are samples of merchandise, machinery and spare parts, electrical equipment, and pharmaceutical products of all descriptions. B.O.A.C. has thus helped considerably in the effort to eliminate disease by the rapid transport of drugs and medical supplies. By the speedy carriage of machinery and spare parts the Corporation is also contributing in no small measure to the rapid progress of engineering projects and the building up of new industries. The B.O.A.C. York freighters are also helping to stimulate trade from South-East Asia to Europe. This applies particularly in the case of livestock. In the past few years the Corporation's aircraft have carried many thousands of animals from South-East Asia to zoos and circuses in Europe and America.

In addition to operating trunk route passenger and freight services, B.O.A.C. helps to provide "feeder" and local services in various parts of the world by making agreements of a technical advisory or managerial nature with smaller airlines. In some instances the Corporation has a financial interest in local airlines. For example, Malayan Airways is an associate of B.O.A.C.

With the progressive introduction of the latest types of airliner, B.O.A.C. looks forward to providing South-East Asia with faster and more frequent services which will help in various ways to foster the development of the area.



## Letters to the Editor

### Indian Elections

DEAR SIR,—I read Ela Sen's well-informed article on the elections in India with the greatest interest. But I wish she had tried to give the answer to her question: Why do the majority vote for Congress which has failed to solve their problems? I think I, for one, can give a few reasons to account for the great success of Congress.

In the first place there has been no clear-cut statement of election issues on non-communal lines by any parties other than the Communists. The Congress organisation in the political field has the same quality as the Hindu faith in the religious. Both tend to be all-inclusive and to welcome new entrants without being very selective. The Hindu fold, as anyone who has visited the Birla Mandir in Delhi will tell you, claims to include all Buddhists, Sikhs, Jains, Jats and members of other faiths. It has been said to be highly tolerant; but a result of this tolerance has been a certain lack of precision in aims and ideals such as one finds in Islam, Judaism and Christianity. It is the creed which provided the best soil for Theosophy. So also in politics. Congress in India admits all who are prepared to give their names and subscriptions (only four annas, I believe, a year) and to vote with it. It does not ask them to be socialist, capitalist, or to have any other definite bias. The fight for freedom is over; and the order to spin khaddar has apparently been allowed to lapse.

That being the case, Congress could build up a huge nation-wide organisation and draw on all classes for members. There was *no other* organisation to compare with it in its coverage of the country and the aura of association with the heroes of the civil disobedience movement still clings to it.

In the result the electorate could not expect any result other than a Congress victory over the whole country, though the Congress poll was nothing like as large as the number of seats secured would suggest. Whereas Congress governments had not managed too badly, the split opposition votes did not secure even five per cent. of the seats. This happened in Bombay, where such national figures as Ambedkar and Ashoka Mehta were, I believe, defeated. But where Congress governments had made a mess of things and shown nothing but intrigues and a squabble for power, the electors, illiterate or otherwise, made no bones about throwing out the party leaders unceremoniously. This happened in Madras. But the sad thing is that in many parts there was only one effective way of being sure to defeat an unworthy Congress candidate. This was to vote solidly for the Communist candidate if there was one. The voters did this in desperation, not as a sign of faith in Communism but as a vote against Congress ineptitude.

But try as the smaller parties might, they could not prevent a Congress majority; splinter groups gained seats in the districts from which their leaders came, but over the whole area, including so many small districts where Congress had the field to themselves, Congress just had to win. The voters could do nothing about it.

If India is to have real democracy, there must be a strong opposition and it is to be hoped that before the next elections come some realignment of parties will make for a strong opposition based on real political principles and not just alliances of vote catchers waiting for the chance of sharing out the spoils of office. It is also to be hoped that in this realignment no party which takes its orders from outside India will be able to call the tune.

Yours, etc.,

Bombay

Y. BANDOOWALLA.

### Chinese in Malaya

DEAR SIR,—Mr. Kanwar's article on the Chinese in Malaya should do much to clear the air. Too many people outside Malaya feel that the Malayan Chinese are generally in sympathy with the bandits in the jungle. What many people do not realise is that the habit of olden times dies slowly. Many Chinese in Malaya still think with affection of the "Double Tenth" (October 10) revolution of Sun Yat Sen and his republic. Large sums of money are sent to Hong Kong which I believe find their way to Chiang Kai-shek's organisations. Malaya's Chinese are definitely not Communists.

Yours, etc.,

London, N.W.

CHAN SZE KIONG.

### Broadcasting to Asia

DEAR SIR,—Cuts in the B.B.C.'s overseas services will be deplored by a great many people in Asian countries where one cannot hear enough of the voice of London. Is it not realised that a million pounds spent on broadcasts to the East can do more good than the show of strength represented by the spending of a hundred millions on arms with no knowledge of what that hundred millions means in tanks, guns and equipment and what it can hold down on the other side? As it is, it is most regrettable that broadcasts to many parts of the East, especially Pakistan, are not easily picked up. Could not some arrangements be made for relaying from say Karachi, Bombay or Colombo? The expenditure would be well worth while. And why not more broadcasts in English to the East? However, in this connection I would like to point out that we would be pleased to have a more varied selection of speakers. The same seem to occur again and again. We would appreciate some new points of view.

Yours, etc.,

Lahore

M. KHWAJUDDIN.



## FROM ALL QUARTERS

### New Zealand's Colombo Plan Contribution

New Zealand's contribution of £250,000 to India under the Colombo Plan is to be utilised in accordance with the wishes of the New Zealand Government as part of the expenditure for the proposed All-India Medical Institute to be established in Delhi. The New Zealand Government have promised to provide a sum of £1 million for the scheme within the next three years. The foundation stone of the Medical Institute will be laid this month when Mr. J. T. Watts, New Zealand's Minister for Industries and Commerce is expected to visit India.

The Institute will provide facilities for training health personnel and will include a medical college for undergraduates, post-graduate medical centre and a dental college.

### Better Ports for India and Pakistan

Both India and Pakistan are improving their port facilities to cope with the diversion of trade resulting from partition. In India, Pandit Nehru recently laid the foundation stone of a completely new port at Kandla on the Gulf of Cutch, and in East Pakistan the port of Chittagong is to be expanded. There is also a comprehensive programme for modernisation at Calcutta.

The new port at Kandla is planned to be in use by 1955, when the isolated and hitherto undeveloped town on the boggy wastelands of Cutch will have become a modern port. Kandla will have improved rail connections, and these will help in the industrial development of the area which is rich in gypsum, limestone, silica and bauxite. The new port will be staffed by people from the town of Gandhidham, itself a tribute to refugee enterprise. Modernisation of the Calcutta port and improvement of the river approach are planned to cost about £20 million and are estimated to take five years. Provision is made for replacement and addition to railway rolling stock, dredges and tugs and for building houses and a hospital. The railway system will be remodelled and five more berths will be constructed.

Chittagong in East Bengal has already spent about £600,000 and its complete development plan is expected to be nearly twenty times as much. Extra jetties, moorings, and godowns should enable Chittagong to handle 3 million tons of cargo a year.

### Combating Malaria in Siam

A recent film, *The Ancient Curse*, made under the auspices of the WHO and UNICEF Malaria Control Team in Siam, tells the story of how Dr. Sambasivan, the WHO team leader, and Dr. Bhatia, the entomologist, located the mosquito *Anopheles minimus* which carries the malaria, how DDT spraying operations were started in

all dwellings and other buildings where people congregate, and how malaria transmission was stopped in the entire district of Serapee in Northern Siam, and so greatly increased the prosperity of this rice-growing region.

The operation was a successful example of cooperation between the World Health Organisation (which provided the international experts), the UN International Children's Emergency Fund (which furnished DDT, the sprayers, vehicles and other supplies), and Siam's Ministry of Health, which made local personnel available for training and paid all local housing and administrative costs.

The Ministry of Health is planning to extend the operations still further to protect 1,400,000 people and in 1953, to protect 2,500,000, although the WHO/UNICEF team has now withdrawn.

### Re-emergence of Japanese Combines

The struggle between large and small enterprises in Japan has already been started by the Head of the Japanese Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Aiihiro Fujiyama, when he proposed that the Japanese Federation of Economic Organisations should be reorganised in order to reduce it to a mere liaison body. It is presumed that the next step he will take will be to withdraw the Japanese Chamber of Commerce and Industry from the Federation. The Federation was formed immediately after the end of the war as a nation-wide organisation with an influential voice not only in business but also in political circles. It included several powerful economic organisations.

Now that the Peace Treaty will soon come into force there are indications that the former Zaibatsu, which was dissolved after the end of the war, will try to make a re-appearance, by means of a closer link between the enterprises concerned. As an instance of this, the Kyokuto Trading Company, the Marunouchi Trading Company, the Meiko Trading Company and the Miyako Trading Company—the successors of the dissolved Mitsubishi Trading Company—were merged in a new company called the Fuji Trading Company on March 18th. The new company has a capital of 230 million yen. The recent revival of free competition following the measures of economic decontrol enforced by the Liberal Government have widened the gap between large and small businesses.

It will be recalled that already early in 1950 when Lieut. Colonel W. R. Hodgson, the British Commonwealth member of the Allied Council for Japan, alleged that eighty per cent. of the industrial and economic life of Japan was being controlled by eight Japanese banks, he was ruled out of order and given a most unsatisfactory reply, although it was known that under-cover agreements between the various components of the combines were already being made.

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## BOOKS on the

Poems From China translated by WONG MAN.  
(Hirschfeld Bros., 7s. 6d. paper, 10s. 6d. cloth)

From the appearance of Sir John Francis Davis's *Chinese Poetry* more than a century ago down to the latest efforts by Chinese and foreign students, the translation of Chinese poetry has been a vexed question. Differences of technique in the art of translation evolved during the past fifty years have ranged apologists for one form firmly against protagonists for another. In the ensuing argument the subject itself, Chinese poetry, tends to get lost altogether.

A recent book, *Poems from China*, translated by Wong Man (Huang Wen) of Hong Kong, and now available in this country, raises anew the whole question of the value of translations into English of Chinese poetry and the form such translations should take. Mr. Wong claims that the poems he has selected are translated "in the Chinese manner" and those who wish to know what this manner is can do no better than examine closely the versions given here, comparing those which have been translated before (and by Western scholars) with the Chinese original as well as with Mr. Wong's rendering. Briefly, it consists in a word-for-word version, mostly without the (to the Western reader) necessary connectives and other particles; without very much help in the matter of carrying over the numerous literary allusions and historical references which, in most Western translations are either incorporated into the "version" which then becomes a paraphrase rather than a translation, or are relegated to footnotes or appendices where they are disregarded by most non-technical readers. But thus is the essential charm and spirit of Chinese poetry lost.

Yet there have been some notable successes. It must have seemed to the gentlemen who made it possible for Legge's Chinese Classics to see the light that in his translation of the *Shih King* (*vulgo* Canon of Poetry or as Waley calls it, Book of Songs) they had the last word in translation from the Chinese. The learned author even did a version in rhyme and thus the Victorian palate was satisfied; even those fearsome radicals who thought it near-sacrilege to translate the poetry of an alien people into traditional English verse-forms had their prose rendering; and they could do with it what they would. The French had had no small measure of success in such translations; but then the French language is so much neater an instrument for verse than our heavier Anglo-Saxon tongue. H. A. Giles was seizing the very spirit of Chinese poetry and, while claiming that most of the best Chinese verse was untranslatable, managing to make some very readable versions of poems hitherto known only to one who could read Chinese.

# FAR EAST

Then arose the "exclusive" school; they had one technique and one only, free verse and the freer the better. The fact is, of course, that Chinese poetry is so wide and so difficult a subject that all and any means of bringing it over into a Western language should be employed. After all, no one school of thought has established its inalienable right to dictate absolutely what does and what does not constitute poetry. No doubt rhyme and metre are wrong as media for some poems; but others absolutely demand them by their very nature. If the school of free verse is outraged by some of the versions now extant they may be certain that no small number of their efforts have given acute pain to some who, able to read the originals, have found in these "modern" versions no trace of the beauty of the Chinese original.

Mr. Wong has rendered a great service to students of Chinese. He is a modern; although he does not say so directly, his comments on the early poetry of his country and his praise of the modern form indicate it plainly. We do not agree with some of his conclusions; we think he goes too far when he attributes the decadence of certain sections of Chinese literature to the inner decay brought on by extreme formalism in its verse. In point of fact it has not yet died. In spite of thirty-eight years of the Republic and a steady decline in interest in formal poetry during the years preceding the founding of the Republic, there are still one or two writers today who excel in the classical form of Chinese verse. And it is still a most compelling vehicle for thought and feeling in the hands of a competent scholar.

Unlike other anthologists Mr. Wong does not dwell too long with the early poets; after all, they have been translated and retranslated over the past century. He gives but six poems from the Shih King, two ancient folk-songs, a few verses from Ch'u Yuan's Li Sao, one Han poem, just over a dozen from the T'ang dynasty and fewer from the Sung. Then he is in the present day with Lu Hsun, Kuo Mo-jo and Mao Tse-tung. The second part of his work is a valuable collection of the form of verse known as *tz'u*; with lines of irregular length and intended to be sung to a traditional tune. The remaining 110 pages of his book are entirely in the modern form, illustrating the best pieces by the best modern poets (many of them yet living).

It is no part of a reviewer's task to pass judgement on the respective merits of ancient and modern as regards the subject matter of his review. It may safely be left to the reader to judge whether the somewhat extravagant eulogies of modern Chinese verse as against the claims of the older forms are borne out by this quite representative and very helpful collection of poems from China.

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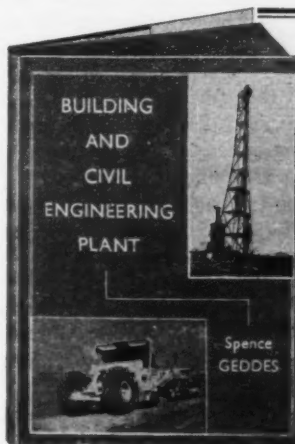
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It is not quite fair to criticise an organisation that depends for its efficiency on the co-operation of a host of countries with varying standards of accuracy in the reporting of economic progress, and therefore one hesitates to say that this analysis is of little value. For having a department of economic affairs, the United Nations Organisation doubtless expects it to collect data and to endeavour to interpret this data for the general benefit of its members.

With the passage of years, no doubt, the later editions of this study might have a completeness which will progressively enhance its value. The present volume is based on replies to a questionnaire sent out by the Secretary-General to members of the organisation and it tells one little that is new. Twenty-one countries sent their answers and in studying these they have been divided into three classes—economically developed free enterprise countries; centrally planned Eastern European countries; and under-developed countries.

Among the under-developed countries, India reports in general terms on diminishing opportunities of employment due to shortages of raw material, capital goods, coal and power and transport, and notes inflationary trends and a considerable volume of under-employment among rural workers and others. The picture from the advanced free enterprise countries is more or less what one expects, and one may express the hope that as more complete statistics become available this study will prove more of a world survey than it is at present.

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**Alec Tiranti Ltd., 72 Charlotte St., London, W.1****Asia's Lands and Peoples (New Second Edition) by  
GEORGE B. CRESSEY. (McGraw-Hill, 50s.)**

Very modestly Dr. Cressey states that Asia is too large to be fully understood by any one person and that he is fully aware of deficiencies in his volume. But it is not with a view to finding flaws that the reader goes through the 600 pages of profusely illustrated text. Rather he looks for and finds a very fair and accurate general appraisal of the now changing East, its natural features and resources, its cultural heritage and its economic progress. For his material the author has tapped every source he could find. He had help from most of the American authorities on the geography of Asia, from Syracuse University and from many of his students in China and the United States. Besides this he acknowledges his debt to camel drivers, innkeepers, local officials and missionary hosts in many places.

Dr. Cressey uses trans-Pacific contacts and the geo-strategy of the Pacific as his starting point, whereas Suez has usually been the hinge upon which all thinking about Asia turns in European eyes. He goes on to give as complete a description of China, including the little-known regions of Inner Asia, as one can hope to find in any recent work on the subject. He sticks to his last carefully and eschews excursions into politics, but one feels he is a bit optimistic when he forecasts growing trade contacts between China and the Western world, including America.

From China the author travels to Russia—and he includes all of the U.S.S.R. in his study of Asia. He gives a very candid appraisal of the great developments since the Tsarist regime and sees great scope for the future, though he does feel that with so much of the land area incapable of exploitation there is a limit to the improvement in living standards and concludes that at no time will all of Russia reach a higher standard of living than that generally prevailing in the United States. In regard to Russia, as in his attitude to China, one feels that the author is trying to be scrupulously fair and objective.

The chapters dealing with India and Pakistan cover more familiar ground, but a new viewpoint is always of great interest where the picture has changed so greatly in recent years. With many of the observations in this section of the book Britons, Indians and Pakistanis may or may not join issue; the fact remains that they are the result of first-hand study and careful research and if one quarrels with details of the picture the general assessment is eminently fair. One could have done with a little more attention to the countries of South-East Asia where the one-time colonial possessions of France, Holland and the United States are rapidly developing into important new states, and Malaya is aspiring to join their ranks in the not distant future.

The volume is well illustrated with hundreds of photographs and maps and charts and should be an acquisition to the geography section of any library.

BERNARD FONSECA



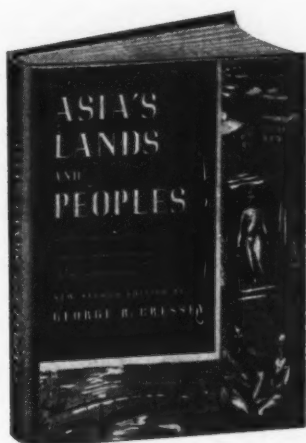
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**The Constitution of India** by G. N. JOSHI (Macmillan, 12s. 6d.)

The Constitution of India is the longest Constitution in the world, since it consists of 395 articles and eight schedules, and the language used is difficult and in some places obscure. The Constitution is prescribed as a subject of study in several universities in India, and both the publishers and the author in his preface say that this book is intended to help young university students to understand this difficult subject. A close examination of the contents of the book proves this claim to be well founded.

The author traces constitutional development in India from the time of the assumption of sovereignty in 1858 by the British Crown up to the framing of the Republican Constitution. Nevertheless, the principal part of the book is the excellent summary of the Constitution itself in a language easily understandable by young students.

In addition, the author has referred to analogous or contrary provisions in similar constitutions, such as those of Canada, Australia and U.S.A., and has pointed out the striking resemblance of the Indian Constitution to the constitutions of these countries. He comments on the needless insertion of certain articles, and many will agree with his criticism that the principles of State policy read like a political manifesto.

U. V. SEETARAMAIVA

## HANDBOOKS

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## Population Statistics of India and Pakistan

*By Bernard Fonseca*

**B**ETWEEN 1870 and 1941 the population of the Indian subcontinent was enumerated at intervals of ten years. Each census in its turn has been the greatest counting of human heads ever undertaken. Each has been an operation of which India could be proud and has yielded, if correctly interpreted, valuable information as to the life and habits of the people.

But however great these achievements, there have been shortcomings (of which the men in charge of the work have been fully aware) if the data obtained are to be put to the best possible use in dealing with the problems of the subcontinent. For one thing, there has been no continuity in the process of population study. The census organisation has been described as a "decennial phoenix" by Yeatts, the man who organised the count of 1941. A year or two before a census, officials would be put in charge who would create an organisation including hundreds of enumerators. At the time of the count all would be busy—and then in a few weeks all would break up, except for those responsible for writing the reports. All the experience gained, whether by officials, clerks or enumerators, would be lost with no certainty that, seven or eight years later, when another census was being planned, they would be given the opportunity of serving again. Where the United States has a permanent bureau which throws continuous light on the country's population growth and problems, the Indian census has been like a comet in the official firmament. Furthermore the mass of data put together at each operation has not been analysed with anything like the thoroughness necessary to achieve a proper understanding of the economic and social conditions of the country.

Having reviewed and read a number of books on

Indian population problems, it was with much more than ordinary interest that I took up yet another volume\*—and one which seems fully justified in making the claim to be "the most thoroughgoing analysis of Indian population data yet published." It is the outcome of eight years' work by the author and a team of research workers at the Princeton University Office of Population Research. In the nature of things they had to content themselves with the data of 1941, when the census was not as complete as its organiser would have made it owing to wartime difficulties, and of previous counts. They have had to allow for the constant changes in the area covered by the census and finally they had the task of preparing a chapter endeavouring to estimate the population data for the area that is now Pakistan.

And it has to be conceded that they have carried out their task well. Mr. Davis in his preface pleads that, while a foreigner may find it difficult to understand the problems of a country, he at least may bring to bear a fresh point of view on the subject. He has tried to look at the problem against the background of similar problems elsewhere and this comparative approach has its uses. One may, indeed one certainly can, pick holes in some of the observations made by him, but in view of the many highly controversial points which arise wherever community and religion are mentioned, as they are in nearly every page, it is perhaps as well that someone with no interests to serve save social and statistical science should have undertaken this analysis so that Indians and Pakistanis may rest assured of a wholly objective approach.

Coming to the statistics and their interpretation, the general picture over the seven decades from 1870 to 1941 has been one of accelerating growth. Allowing for some under-enumerating at the first three censuses, Mr. Davis finds that there has been a growth of 52 per cent. in the subcontinent's population in 70 years. This, contrary to a generally prevalent notion is by no means a phenomenal increase. It is below the rise in population in the British Isles (57 per cent.), Japan (120 per cent.) or the United States (230 per cent.), as well as Germany, Continental Europe and Chile. India's increase has, however, been abnormal by the standards of past ages, prior to the 18th century, and indeed it is part of a global increase at an unprecedented rate as industry and commerce spread over the earth. The major factors affecting population are mortality, fertility and migratory movements, of which the last has not been numerically important as far as India is concerned.

The figures for the Indian death rate in the 38-year period 1911-1948 tell a remarkable story. Everywhere the fight against death is showing results. From 1946 onwards the death rate per 1,000 persons per year in British India (the provinces) has been consistently below

20. From 1911 to 1920 the figure was consistently above 29 and from 1921 to 1930 it was always above 24, but never reached 29 except in 1921. From 1931 to 1945 it was always above 20 but never above 25, except in 1931. Indeed after 1939 it only exceeded 23 in the years 1943 and 1944 (the years of the Bengal famine).

The fall in the death rate can be attributed to the elimination of war and banditry, to the control of famine and to the control of epidemic diseases. Still many major killers among diseases of one kind or another remain and, while the causes of death as diagnosed by village headmen are not always correctly reported, the silver lining is there. India and Pakistan are better placed than were the Western peoples to take a shortcut by means of the latest scientific discoveries and to realise the sharpest decline in mortality the world has ever known. But Mr. Davis goes on to observe that a continued low death rate is inconceivable without a modern economy and what he calls a civilised fertility.

Human fertility is the subject of several very carefully prepared chapters in which the author and his assistants have been at great pains to allow for the errors in official figures, particularly in estimating populations in intercensal years. The death rate has been falling; the birth rate and fertility of the population remain high and the question of how long the present rate of increase of population can go on assuming that economic development

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\*The Population of India and Pakistan by KINGSLEY DAVIS (Geoffrey Cumberlege; Oxford University Press, 48s.)



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provides for more mouths till a point is reached where it can do no more is of importance to the planners.

The figures have been searched for an indication that India and Pakistan are following the western pattern where a decline in urban fertility has been followed by a decline in rural fertility, but no such trend is discernible. On the other hand there is a tendency to lower fertility among the higher castes or well-to-do classes but this is largely due to a larger proportion of the women of these groups staying single or becoming widows and not remarrying. When one takes count of women who are married the difference in fertility tends to disappear. A small proportion of the married and well-to-do in the cities practise contraception, but a survey of married women in Punjab villages shows very little variation in fertility for the different income and occupation groups. The tolerance of widow remarriage among Muslims is reflected in the greater fertility of women of this persuasion.

The melancholy conclusion which Davis reaches is that an early and substantial decline in fertility in India is unlikely unless rapid changes not now known or envisaged are made in Indian life.

From these studies of death and birth rates one finds that India and Pakistan have populations which are largely young. Between them they have three times the population of the United States, but age pyramids showing the population by age and sex give India a very broad base of the younger age groups with a very narrow apex, whereas the structure for the United States has a narrower base, widens as the adult stages are reached and tapers less rapidly beyond middle age. This shows that the Indian subcontinent has six times as many children up to four as the United States, but only the same number of old people over 65. There are fewer dependants in the Western countries, but they face the prospect of having an increased ratio of old-age dependants.

In the foreseeable future one can see India and Pakistan coming in for an era of wholly fantastic growth as the age structure of the population changes. Fewer deaths in childhood will mean a greater proportion of the people reaching the reproductive age. The death rate is unquestionably falling and there are no signs of any

trend to reduced fertility. A continuance of the 1921-41 rate of increase would thus give the whole area 800 million people by the year 2,000 and it is hard to see how any industrial development will help matters as industrialisation elsewhere is usually accompanied by a great rise in numbers before a fall in the rate of increase.

Migration as a controlling factor and an outlet for population pressure is the subject of two chapters in which the conclusion is reached that the average Indian is one of the least mobile of people seldom going beyond the frontiers of his own district and province, let alone overseas. The volume of emigration has been very small and for various reasons, including the exclusion policies of most countries which have had Indian immigrants, it is not likely to prove an appreciable factor in the solving of India's problem of too many people.

A most interesting section of the volume is that on social change as shown in population statistics. Here the author has built up a picture of India's changing social pattern as revealed in figures and a remarkably good picture it is. He goes into the business of urbanisation and the tendency of the villager to keep his rural home while going to the city for work. Contact with the village is his only form of social insurance on which to fall back when sick, unemployed or too old to work.

The demography of caste is the subject of a whole chapter in which the division of not only Hindus but Muslims as well is analysed. The forces tending to break down caste and those tending to preserve it are enumerated and the author comes to the conclusion that the march of events is having its effect, but only very slowly, and more slowly in the rural areas than in the cities where people are thrown together so much and have opportunities of finding new trades and crafts in place of the inherited ones.

In conclusion Mr. Kingsley Davis feels that in India and Pakistan things must get worse before they can get better. Had the two countries firm policies of population control while embarking on industrialisation the outlook would have been more hopeful, but in the absence of such a policy, with birth control as the greatest stumbling block, a greater degree of poverty, a greater risk of catastrophe will have to be faced.

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# THE YALI

By M. Krishnan (Madras)

INDIAN folk-tales and mythology are strangely poor in fabulous beasts, in great and scaly horrors crawling out of the primeval sludge, and fantastic griffons, basilisks and unicorns. There are, of course, any number of stories about animals in the lavish mythology of India, some of them quite charming, but they are about real animals—animals that still belong to the country, though in those fables they speak and plot. Even celestial fauna is realistic. However, in South India, one encounters in literature and sculpture a creature called the Yali, which belongs purely to the realm of fancy.

The Yali is half-elephant and half-lion, according to Tamil literature, but here references to the beast are cryptic, endowing it with a vague and terrible potency that no description can achieve. South Indian sculpture, however, is less mysterious and reticent over the Yali. There is hardly a shrine in the south which does not hold a Yali, or a string of Yalis in a frieze, in its precincts. There are so many of them, in fact, that it is hardly surprising that they should vary so much; and they do vary widely in these profuse representations. Typically, the Yali has the trunk of an elephant, and perhaps its tusks and fore feet, but is otherwise leonine. Literature is specific about the elephantine proboscis, but art is less rigid. The corner piece from Kaveripakkam is a splendid example of an orthodox Yali. Its left tusk, and a part of its trunk, are broken, but even so it is undoubtedly a magnificent creature and the rhythmic, scrolled treatment of its features is in the best traditions of its tribe. However, Yalis without trunks and with leonine heads are quite common: only in the absence of mane about the ears and forehead, the larger ears, often carried erect, the overlong canines, and in traditional associations do such Yalis differ from lions. The frieze



Yali-head frieze

(Madras Government Museum)

illustrated here shows typical, non-elephantine Yalis, although these leonine Yalis are not quite as lion-like as tradition would have us believe, since their heads have a decided canine cast. The square-nosed profile of lions, in fact and art, is distinctive—these Yalis have overshot jaws, and have the noses and jaws of heavy mastiffs rather than of any other creature, the placing of the nostrils and the nose itself being decidedly canine.

It is folk-lore that gives us the only clue to the habits and prejudices of this fearful beast. We learn that it was more powerful than any other beast, and that while lions



Yali corner piece—Kaveripakkam, N. Arcot District

(Madras Government Museum)

feared nothing else and could kill elephants with ease (in tradition), the Yali sought out and slaughtered lions.

Perhaps the most remarkable thing about the Yali is that so little is known about it, in spite of its abundance in southern temples. Its main use is in art, where it serves a formal decorative function. The Yali, squatting on its haunches, serves admirably to fill a corner or to support a pillar—and there are many corners and columns in Indian shrines. The Yali rampant is also a favourite theme with old-time master sculptors, especially in a frieze or leaning out of a pillar. Having little scope for individuality in these stylised representations of a traditional beast, these sculptors have often found satisfaction in a display of their virtuosity in surface treatment or in carving free-rolling stone spheres inside the Yali's mouth.

These stone boluses, always much wider across than the gape of the slightly open mouth, are true monuments to the cunning and skill of the hands that shaped them so flawlessly by patient excavation. One can insert a forefinger between the grinning jaws and turn these perfect spheres, but it is hard to comprehend by what feat of skill the sculptor carved four or five of them within that narrow compass, to roll timelessly in imprisonment.

Years ago, while motoring through the extreme south, we stopped at a temple in a little place called Nattarasankottai. I was much impressed with one of the Yalis there,

which had six stone boluses in its mouth, and examined it closely. There was a boy watching me, obviously interested in my examination of the beast, and when I spoke to him he informed me, proudly, that that Yali was of no great age—that, in fact, his grandfather had carved it. Unfortunately the boy, who told me that he too could carve, had not inherited the traditional skill of his forefathers, but he said his father could carve a Yali with boluses in its mouth, but only two or three—apparently the art was being progressively lost in that family. I

waited long to meet this father, who was out and who knew the secret, in the hope that he would tell me by what esoteric means the boluses were achieved. But when it grew dark and my companions insisted that it was high time to move on, I had to leave the place. Subsequently I have tried to contact some master carver whose traditional skill could explain the exact process, and the tools used, but unsuccessfully. The art of these orthodox religious sculptors is now cold, and the secret of the Yali remains within its unyielding jaws.

## JAPANESE ART IN LONDON

By Winifred Holmes

AS he lay dying, an artist who had only left his native provincial town of Yedo for an occasional short journey into the surrounding countryside, wrote these words:

"I leave my brush at Azuma,  
To view new sights  
I take the long road to the West."



Hiroshige: Two Horses Under a Willow Tree at Full Moon

The artist was Hiroshige, the last of the great Japanese print-designers. Though his brush may have been left at Azuma, its work travelled to the West and made the hand, the eye, the brain, the sensibility that guided it famous.

Western artists, Whistler and van Gogh in particular, have been deeply influenced by Hiroshige's "pictures of the passing world" (Ukiyoye), recognising genius in his delicate, quickly executed, certain studies of the landscape he loved; recognising a vision of the essentials of reality which they envied and emulated.

The Exhibition of his work in London this winter has shown us less well-known aspects of his great talent: the bird and flower poem strips, the rigid fan designs, and the *surimono* of all kinds.

Each one is a masterpiece in miniature, revealing a grace and a sureness of touch which are nothing short of magical.

Of his more formal work the print of "Two Horses Under a Willow Tree at Full Moon" is superb, an exercise in black and greys, stronger than many of his prints. The most famous print exhibited is "Oji, Foxes Scenting the Fire on New Year's Day"—a masterpiece. The light on the fur of the strange almost reptilian animals—fairy, demon foxes if ever there were any—the glint of fire in their eyes, the concourse beyond and the glow of the flames, all these make seeing this picture not only a delight but an experience, and one that only a Japanese artist could give us.

Besides this Hiroshige Exhibition arranged by the Arts Council of Great Britain, Londoners and those visiting the city can see concurrently a special Exhibition of Japanese theatrical prints at the British Museum, by the print-designer artists who were Hiroshige's predecessors.

Of these the most striking is Sharaku, whose portraits of the entire casts of Kabuki plays during their greatest period were painted in 1794. The museum has in its possession two complete sets of this rare artist's portraits of actors. Although they follow the tradition of line drawing, lightly coloured, their planes flat rather than solid, these bust portraits are evidently faithful to the physical appearance of the actors although depicting them in their Kabuki roles.



The expressions are to some extent stylised according to Kabuki tradition. The mouths of the bad characters turn down at the corners; those of the strong and business-like run straight across in a firm line; those of the heroes and heroines (played always by men) are gently curved upwards and their eyes do not glare but seem to glow softly.

Sharaku's prints are rare as they were popular with the middle-class patrons of the Kabuki stage who preferred idealised representations of their favourites. This exhibition is therefore of great interest, both to artists and connoisseurs of the Japanese wood-cut print and also to students of the theatre.

Many other artists working in the same medium, between the years 1700 and 1800, are represented in the Exhibition. Their portraits are chiefly of Kabuki actors, though there are a few prints of *No* actors and dancers and of the Joruri Puppet Theatre.

According to one authority, "in Kabuki the dramatist was not the most important figure. It was an actor's art, appealing to the eye through the perfection and subtlety of movement, gesture and expression, enlivened by music and dancing."

Production and staging were more elaborate than in the *No* theatre. One of the wood-cuts exhibited shows clearly the form of the early Kabuki stage. It was on a raised platform and the audience sat in front and at both sides of it. Slightly behind the centre of the stage sat musicians and along one side was a raised platform lead-

ing to the stage, the *Hanmichi*, "flower-path," along which the actors made their stylised choreographic entry.

So popular was the Kabuki Theatre that the public demanded more and more portraits of its great actors. The art of the print-designer boomed.

The actors were not of high class. Most of them came from actor families or were adopted into these families by legal grant and took their name. Ichikawa, Sawamura, Segawa, Onoye—these names occur over and over again in these portrait-prints.

The players were organised in troupes and subjected to severe discipline and training in the interests of their art. Those who specialised in female parts had their heads shaved, wore wigs and covered their faces, necks, arms and legs with chalk to attain the ideals of female beauty then in vogue.

Some of the wood-blocks on show have amusing series of pictures of actors on and off the stage. The artists have caught expressions of boredom, conceit and anxiety and the curious mediocrity which seems often to fall upon players when they are not in action on the stage. It is as if their personalities, normally magnified, were reduced to less than ordinary people's when not in character. The Japanese print-designers of two hundred years ago slyly caught and recorded this so that their representations of the adulated figures of the theatrical world of their day are as fresh and living to us as any contemporary work on the same theme would be to us today.

## The Role of Unesco Technical Assistance in Asia

(By Malcolm S. Adiseshiah, Director, Technical Assistance Service, UNESCO)

AT the present time, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation is cooperating with eight Asian countries as part of its share of the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance for Economic Development.

Under this programme, which was begun in 1950, Unesco is providing assistance in education and science to a total of 32 countries to help maintain their economic progress. By December 31, 1951, ninety Unesco technical assistance experts were in the field.

Our aid consists of teams of experts (recruited internationally with the approval of the requesting country) sent out to work with governments on advisory research and demonstration projects. Some scientific and educational equipment is provided in connection with these projects. Fellowships for study or training abroad are an important phase of the programme, for it is our aim that international experts should have counterparts studying in the same fields so that, eventually, the experts may be replaced. In all, 130 of these fellowships have been

awarded under the technical assistance programme. Training and "on-the-job" experience are also given to personnel provided by the country where a mission is operating.

The first year's experience has shown that assistance is asked in seven fields: fundamental education, general educational problems such as school administration, and then primary education, secondary education, technical training, teacher training and science teaching. In Asia, we are now rendering technical assistance in all of these fields.

Before going into the actual operation of our programme in Asia, I would like to clear up one point. We are often asked how the United Nations technical assistance programme—including that of Unesco—fits in with similar plans now being carried out. The answer is: very closely. We maintain constant relations with the Council for Technical Cooperation in South and South-East Asia (the Colombo Plan) and with the United Nations bi-lateral "Point IV" programme. In many

instances, our missions have been planned to co-ordinate with the activities of these agencies and, in some instances, equipment and experts from more than one agency contribute to the same project.

Viewed as a whole, there is one outstanding characteristic of Unesco's programme in Asia. In the case of six countries—Burma, Ceylon, India, Pakistan, the Philippines and Thailand—Unesco technical assistance is being used within the framework of long-term development plans upon which these countries had already embarked. Here, Unesco's role is that of assisting governments in planning and launching new educational and scientific development projects, but in Asia we are mainly junior partners in programmes already initiated by governments.

The simplest way of explaining the operation of Unesco technical assistance in Asia is by direct examples. India and Pakistan serve as excellent illustrations of our programme in science. We have an agreement with India to supply ten specialists who will participate in India's national five-year plan to step up scientific research and to create more facilities for training technicians. Five of these experts have already arrived. The first one on the scene, a mechanical engineer, has been instrumental in the setting up of a model factory where industrial techniques can be studied in actual practice. In Pakistan, a Unesco mission of four experts is working with the Pakistani meteorological service in establishing the first geophysical institute of South-East Asia. The Government has agreed to construct a building for the Institute at Quetta and preliminary research is already well under way.

When we come to Ceylon, we find an example of technical assistance being rendered to a government project whose aim is to use education as a means of bringing about improved standards of living. Five international experts—two supplied by Unesco, and the others by the International Labour Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organisation and the World Health Organisation—have been formed into a team to staff a fundamental education demonstration project at Minneyra where the Ceylonese Government is conducting a land resettlement programme. This project is now being used as a workshop to train rural leaders and, from Minneyra, these leaders will go out to direct similar projects elsewhere in Ceylon.

The demonstration technique is being used in Siam as well, at a model school which Unesco and the Siamese Government are operating jointly at Chachangsao. This school is working in primary, secondary and adult education, in addition to technical training. One day every week, the school's normal activities are closed down and 150 teachers from the surrounding region are brought in for training in the methods developed at Chachangsao.

In Indonesia we are concentrating on still another aspect of education—the use of audio-visual aids. A

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British expert in documentary films is now working with the Indonesian Government on films and film-strips for use in the Indonesian mass education programme. It is also in this field of educational development that Unesco technical assistance is operating in Afghanistan, Burma and the Philippines.

It should be emphasised that Unesco is not doing this work alone. In many instances our missions are part of overall United Nations technical assistance projects, bringing in several of the specialised agencies. Resident representatives of the United Nations Technical Assistance Board in New York are being sent out to assist governments on technical assistance matters and to co-ordinate the activities of agencies working together in one country.

We are convinced that this programme has made a good start in its first year, notwithstanding the countless administrative hurdles which must be passed in organising an international activity of this nature. There are now 20 experts from eleven nations at work in Asia, coming from Australia, Brazil, Denmark, Germany, India, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. Twenty fellowships were awarded to Asian nationals in 1951.

The aim of the technical assistance programme is to help countries develop their own technical and trained personnel, their own facilities and resources and their own economic programmes. Unesco hopes to continue to provide this assistance in educational and scientific fields in the years to come.

## POLICE DETENTION — JAPANESE STYLE

By L. H. Lovely

I WAS quite unaware that the Japanese Navy had attacked Pearl Harbour and, on the morning after the raid took place, I was sitting in my comfortable Yokohama home, quietly having breakfast. Miyoko, my faithful Japanese maid-servant, was waiting on me, as usual. I remembered afterwards that she had startled me by dropping a plate on the floor; also that she had been unusually slow about answering some questions I had put to her regarding a dinner party I expected to hold that evening.

A dinner party that evening! How comical the idea sounds now!

The telephone rang. It was not often anybody rang me up at breakfast time. Miyoko answered it and told me it was my friend Strachan. He was manager of one of the British Banks.

"Hallo, Bill!" I said, as I picked up the instrument, "what's the matter with you at this hour?"

"Good God, man," he replied quickly, "do you mean to say you haven't heard the news? Your servants must have got it on the radio."

Miyoko's hesitant manner flashed across my mind.

"Well, they didn't say a word to me," I said. "What is it?"

"The radio says the Japanese Navy is attacking the British and American fleets!"

"I don't believe it. Why in Washington——"

"Washington, my eye. The balloon's gone up, I tell you!"

Strachan was always a bit of an alarmist and liked being dramatic. I told him I still didn't believe the report and promised to ring him up when I got to my office.

I took my car out and drove along the usual road to the town. I noticed nothing unusual until I reached the police station and then I admit I felt uncomfortable when I saw

that it was guarded. However, I went on and reached my office without incident.

My first action was to lift up the telephone to call Strachan, but I had hardly got the receiver to my ear when the door opened and in walked three Japanese police inspectors. The leading man took the receiver away from me, put his hands on all the papers on my desk, told me to leave them where they were and to come with him at once. I had the sense, I am glad to say, to pick up my overcoat and gloves as I went. It was lucky for me that, on that morning, I was wearing my warmest overcoat, my thickest suit and my stoutest shoes.

I was taken straight to the police station. One of the senior inspectors there, in quite a polite manner, took down my name, address and other details, despite the fact that he must have had them all available from his records. It never crossed my mind that all this was anything more than a sort of routine check-up prior to my entering an internment camp. We all knew we would be interned if war broke out and, while the thought was unpleasant enough, we never visualised that there would be any other fate in store for us.

When the inspector had finished with me, I had a very long wait alone in an ante-room. I wondered why Strachan and a lot of my other British friends had not been brought in at the same time. At last, a policeman came to summon me. He led me across a passage to a part of the police station I had never seen before.

It was a square hall at the back of the building. Round this hall were six grilled doors which, to my horror, I saw led to cells containing prisoners. These cells were so dark that it was impossible to distinguish more than a few shapes that moved now and then.

I was handed over to one of the policemen in charge. He made me take off my shoes, my sock suspenders and



my braces. Then he led me towards the cells. I protested, saying in Japanese that I was sure he had made a mistake, but he only handled me roughly and pushed me in.

There were five Japanese and a Korean inside. As none of them had bathed or shaved for some days, they looked like a lot of thugs at first but, though they may have been criminals, they behaved remarkably well towards me, especially when they found I could speak their language and had lived in their country for many years. None of them showed the least hostility; in fact, they evinced a kind of comradeship towards me, seeming sorry for my plight. I had a long conversation with one of them, an intelligent man named Mochidzuki, the editor of a magazine. He was detained for interrogation because he had published certain articles that were not considered to be in the national interest. He depressed me, I remember, by telling me he did not expect to be brought to trial for at least six months.

There were two young boys who, as Mochidzuki put it, had been "naughty" in some way. Also an old man from Tokyo, suspected of something or other. Later in the morning, a young university student was thrust into the cell to join us. He would not say what he was accused of and he was not very communicative on the whole, but he understood French and he liked to practise it with me. He used to refer to our cell as "cette place sinistère."

I passed the time talking and joking with my companions. We all tried to keep as cheerful as we could. But, as it was December, the place was horribly cold as well as dark and it got very much colder towards evening.

Food, consisting of a small box of rice and a scraping of vegetables, was pushed through the grille at noon. I thought it good policy to refuse this and insist on getting foreign food. The policeman said he would "see about it," but told me I would have to manage with rice in the meantime. Becoming hungry in the afternoon, I ate the rice, but found it poor stuff and far from satisfying.

We were not allowed to lie down until eight o'clock. The evening meal, another box of rice and vegetables, came at five o'clock and, after we had disposed of that, we found the remaining three hours very hard to kill.

Bedtime came at last and *futons* (Japanese eiderdowns), not too clean, were handed in, sufficient to cover the floor and to put over our bodies. There was no furniture of any kind in the room and the privy was a hole in the floor.

We lay down in rows, side by side. I had just resigned myself to an unhappy night, when a policeman opened the door and handed me three blankets, a thermos bottle of hot cocoa and a packet of sandwiches. He said my servants had just sent them down from the house and that the inspector had agreed I might have them.

Never had food tasted so good or blankets seemed so warm! I felt mean as I wrapped the latter round me and devoured my meal, but none of my companions seemed

to grudge me these comforts. They had been sympathetic over my having to eat rice and appeared happy to see me get my own food.

In spite of the discomfort of the close quarters and the chorus of snoring that shortly arose, I slept well that night.

I was kept in that ghastly cold and dark cell for nearly ten days. Now and again, it became so packed with prisoners that sleep at night was impossible. I used to amuse myself, as I lay on the floor, watching the drunks and thieves brought in at all hours from outside. Women were brought in too sometimes, probably for soliciting in the streets.

A well-disposed inspector turned up one morning and told me he had been checking up on my property. Seeing that I was growing quite a beard, he promised to arrange a shave for me, but that was the last I saw of him. One of the other inspectors strolled up to the grille one evening and had quite a long chat with me. At first, I thought he had come to tell me something, but I soon found he was only passing the time. He seemed particularly anxious, purely for curiosity I think, to find out what salary I had been receiving.

I tried to guess why I had not been taken to an internment camp and why I was now in a police cell with a bunch of criminals. Being anxious to look on the bright side, I told myself that I had been locked up for protection, in order to prevent a Japanese mob from doing me violence. Anyway, I consoled myself with this, though I felt in my heart it could not be true. And how untrue it was!

At last, on the tenth day, an official opened the grille, called my name and told me to follow him. He snapped a pair of handcuffs over my wrists. Handcuffs feel unpleasant when you get them on for the first time.

We went upstairs, before yet another inspector, who gave me hope by immediately ordering the handcuffs to be removed. "Now," I thought to myself, "I am going to be taken to the internment camp at last! They needed time to get it ready, perhaps, and just put me here in the interval." A new thought but, alas, again how wrong!

The inspector went over all the questioning again and my heart sank once more. My father's name, my date of birth, the date of my arrival in Japan, and so on *ad nauseum*. At length, we went downstairs and, to my great joy, outside into the open air. Ah, how good it smelt, after that stuffy cell! I took great gulps of it into my lungs, to the amusement of the policemen in charge of me.

We got into a car and again my spirits rose. But they sank again very quickly when it became clear what our destination was. The Yokohama gaol! No nice internment camp for me, that was plain enough.

I was pushed into a cell, clean but very small. About ten feet by six, I reckoned. And in that cell I lived, solitary and without even books to read, for eight long months. But that is another story.

# ECONOMIC SECTION

## Economic Stability and Under-Developed Countries

By Arthur Hazlewood

FOREIGN trade, particularly the export of primary products, is of exceptional importance to most under-developed countries. In Asia and the Far East exports are important to the economies of Burma, Ceylon, Indo-China, Malaya, Pakistan, the Philippines and Siam. The dependence of such countries on foreign trade makes them peculiarly susceptible to economic changes in the industrial countries, which constitute the main market for their exports and the main source of their imports. Even the export trade in rice indirectly depends on the industrial countries, for it is their demand for primary products which largely determines the purchasing power of the rice importers. Between the wars economic fluctuations in the industrial countries led to extreme instability in the markets for primary products and created great difficulties for the exporting countries.

The post-war world, with generally full employment in the industrial countries, seems far removed from the slump conditions which were characteristic of inter-war years. But it would be wrong to think that no attention need now be given to the problems of primary commodity markets. The economic predominance of the United States makes the fortunes of primary producers more than ever dependent on what happens in America. Even comparatively slight changes in the level of America's economic activity, through their effect on her demand for imports, seriously disturb the economies of the primary producing countries. In recent years the prices of many commodities, including jute, rubber and tin, have experienced large movements both up and down. The American recession of 1949 greatly affected exports from countries in Asia and the Far East and was to a large extent responsible for forcing many of them to tighten import controls and eventually to devalue their currencies. Since then the situation has been reversed, booming demand leading to rocketing prices and large surpluses, with again a decline following the peak of the boom.

Events since 1949 suggest that it is not only, or even primarily, cyclical changes in business conditions which now constitute the main threat to economic stability. Recent economic changes have been the direct reflection of events in the political and military spheres. The violent changes in world economy since 1949 have been brought about by American strategic stock-piling, rearmament,

and the war in Korea, reinforced by the action of speculative forces. The combined balance of trade of ten Asian\* countries changed from a deficit of \$800 million in 1949 to a surplus of well over \$800 million in 1950, the joint effect of an increase in exports and a fall in imports. In the first quarter of 1951 the price of rubber was four times, and of tin more than twice that of a year earlier. High export prices and large export surpluses stimulated inflation in the exporting countries. In Malaya and Indonesia, the main rubber and tin exporters, the cost of living rose by 32 per cent. and 70 per cent. respectively in the one year. Rearmament and world inflation also increased the prices of goods imported by the primary producers, particularly for Malaya where import prices rose by 50 per cent. in a year, and this further raised their internal price levels.

High prices for their exports should be of great advantage to under-developed countries. Increased export earnings should enable them to improve their living standards, by increased imports of consumer goods, and to finance programmes of economic development designed to diversify their economies and make them less sensitive to the vagaries of primary commodity markets. But the benefits of high export prices are illusory if they are dissipated through internal inflation. If the events which stimulate the rise in exports also result in scarcities which limit imports of manufactured consumer goods and capital equipment, then the primary producing countries cannot take advantage of their high export earnings to raise their standards of living and to accelerate their economic development. Their increased export earnings bring not the benefits but the evils of inflation.

Furthermore, the situation is extremely unstable. A change in the political climate could bring a sudden and severe reversal of economic conditions. An end to rearmament or the Korean war would doubtless precipitate depression in primary commodity markets. There is no doubt that the problem of instability in the markets for primary commodities is still one of the utmost importance to countries of Asia and the Far East.

In the inter-war years numerous schemes were introduced to influence the markets for various primary commodities. On the whole they were devised in the interests of the producer in an attempt to raise prices by monopolistic behaviour. To them the epithet "restriction schemes" was correctly applied. Although their growth in the prevailing slump conditions is understandable, there is wide agreement that schemes of this character are undesirable and are to be avoided in the future. There has been much discussion of other ways of tackling primary commodity problems, and this discussion has been carried to a new level by a group of experts whose report to the United Nations on *Measures for International Economic Stability* has recently been published. As the

\*Burma, Ceylon, Hong Kong, India, Indo-China, Indonesia, Malaya, Pakistan, Philippines, Siam.

title of the report indicates, the experts were concerned with a wider problem than that of the instability of primary commodity markets, but as they were asked to give particular attention to the position of under-developed countries, primary commodity problems inevitably bulk large in their discussion. The report accepts as its basic assumption that slumps of the magnitude of that of the 1930s will be prevented in the future by Governmental action, but that significant depressions are still likely to occur in the United States. These may be on a scale similar to that of the 1937 to 1938 depression when American employment fell by 4 per cent. and imports by 36 per cent., or even to that of the 1920 to 1921 depression when employment fell by 9 per cent. and imports by 52 per cent. The experts were concerned to devise measures to reduce the international impact of such depression.

For details of the experts' recommendations reference must be made to the report, but the essence of their proposals may be briefly outlined. Firstly, the report comes out firmly in favour of international commodity agreements of varying kinds, suitable for the different types of commodity, to stabilise markets against temporary fluctuations in demand and supply. Where a buffer stock, perhaps working in conjunction with some other arrangement, is considered appropriate, the report recommends that the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development participates in the financing. This activity is appropriate

for the Bank to undertake because of the importance of stability in the demand for their exports for the economic development of primary producing countries. The second proposal is that the International Bank, with suitably augmented resources, by expanding the flow of its lending should help under-developed countries to continue their economic development programmes without interruption when a depression reduces their current earnings of foreign exchange. Finally, changes are recommended in the policy and resources of the International Monetary Fund, so that it can more effectively enable member countries to cushion the effects of a temporary fall in their export earnings.

The experts acknowledge that their approach to the problem of economic stability has limitations. In particular their proposals have only a limited bearing on the main problems of the poorer under-developed countries. Nothing but progress in economic development to diversify their economies and raise their living standards can fundamentally modify the position of such countries, although a greater degree of economic stability in the world would assist the process of development. Unfortunately, it is precisely those forces which have been responsible for the spectacular movements in the world economy over the last two years, which will retard the economic development of countries whose plans are based on the hope of obtaining investment resources from the industrial countries of the West.

## The Mechanisation of Agriculture in South-East Asia

By Noel Newsome

**S**OUTH-EAST ASIA as a whole, and India in particular, faces a critical food situation. Population is increasing rapidly and food production is not. Imports from abroad, even if available, must result in a ruinous drain on foreign exchange, especially dollars.

Birth control is essential but will take a very long time to establish. Abandonment of vegetarianism and the education of the people in the consumption of root crops in addition to the staple cereals are also necessary in the long run, but it will be a long run. Meanwhile, the only hope of rapid amelioration of the situation lies in greater production.

I did not meet a single experienced agriculturalist during my recent tour of India, Pakistan and Ceylon who did not agree that to achieve this the introduction of farm machinery on the widest possible scale is imperative. Mechanisation is a plank in the platform of not only the Congress Government of India, but of every party with the exception of one or two very reactionary splinter groups of extreme Hindus. In Ceylon, the Prime Minister carries his Cabinet with him in favouring mechanisation, and in Pakistan Ministers and officials, though cautious in

their approach, are in principle of the same view. The forthcoming report of their Agricultural Advisory Committee, headed by Lord Boyd-Orr, with whom I had long conversations, is likely to be emphatic in its recommendations on the subject.

On the other hand, it would be unrealistic to minimise the obstacles to agricultural mechanisation. They are great and include the ignorance and lethargy of the illiterate and undernourished cultivators, hidebound by prejudice and sunk in fatalistic resignation. Given a real lead and examples of what can be done to improve their lot by modern methods, apathy and lack of education can be overcome. There are greater difficulties to master, notably the extreme fragmentation of holdings and the virtually complete lack of capital.

The generally excessively small size of holdings—from four to five acres—must eventually be dealt with, as industrialisation proceeds, by absorbing millions of families now on the land into the cities. In the short-term the problem can be tackled by inaugurating group farming projects such as is being done already with some success in Britain's African colonies. The very fact, however,





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that the Africans are a good deal more primitive than the Asians, in that they are still living in tribal semi-communal societies long left behind in Asia, makes it easier to organise group projects in Africa than in Asia. Nevertheless, it can and must be done in South-East Asia if agricultural mechanisation is to spread beyond the fringe of larger farms.

It is true that the number of farms of 100 acres and more in South-East Asia is far greater than most people realise. There are at least 500,000 of them in India alone and a start has already been made with the mechanisation of these. In the past two years the number of tractors in India has more than doubled but still only 1.5 per cent. of the half-million larger farms have a tractor.

The reason for this is primarily financial. Even the bigger farmers are short of capital and until some arrangement can be made for them to receive low-interest, long-term loans the advance of mechanisation must be slow, although the increased income earned by those who have been able to invest in machinery is already very apparent.

The question is who is to finance the farmers? The manufacturers and distributors need such moderate profits as they make for the provision of service, stocks of spares, training schools, research and development. As far as India is concerned, and this almost certainly applies to the whole area, no financial houses are prepared to advance money at less than 35 per cent.

The only solution seems to be with the Government and governmental agencies, such as Land Mortgage Banks, Agricultural Development Corporations and so on. If these do not exist they must be created. Schemes by which farmers can borrow up to 75 per cent. of the total value of machinery purchased at 4 or 5 per cent. over three to five years exist in Northern Ireland, Turkey and Finland, for example, and are being introduced in British Colonies. Experience so far shows that this is a safe investment for the lender and a profitable transaction for both the farmer and the country as a whole, which gets a dividend in more plentiful and cheaper food.

Unless the governments of the countries of South-East Asia, with or without the aid of the Western Powers associated with the Colombo Plan, the Truman Point Four Programme and similar schemes, are ready to make credit available both to the larger farmers short of capital and to village groups of small cultivators, then mechanisation will be too slow for the salvation of South-East Asia. It is a race against time.

From my conversations with the members of both central and state governments in the area I believe that they recognise the need for such plans for financial assistance to farmers. The Secretary of India's Economic Planning Commission, for instance, told me that the Commission not only plans to encourage mechanisation of agriculture on individual larger farms, "joint farms" of smaller size run by two or three families, village group farms and collective farms established on land reclaimed and owned by the Government, but appreciates that in all cases Government financial assistance will be needed.

The danger, however, as with all these blueprints for progress, is that decisions and action will be taken too late.

## FAO's Technical Aid to S.E. Asia and the Far East

By George Mulgrue.

AT the end of World War II, South-East Asia presented a picture of ruined agriculture and abandoned plantations. Its export trade in rice, rubber, metals, fibres, oil-products and spices had virtually ceased, and the resulting critical food situation called for rapid and determined international action if mass-starvation were to be avoided. Even now, though rice production has regained pre-war levels, the total population of the area has increased by an estimated 10 per cent. since 1937, leaving a corresponding food deficit.

The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations took part in preliminary surveys of countries such as the Philippines, Indonesia and Pakistan, and on the basis of information thus gathered has undertaken since October 1950, when funds became available through the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance, seventy-

eight projects in eight Asian countries. These call for the services of 114 FAO experts, of whom 77 are already in the field.

In terms of the number of people who would benefit, the world's most urgent food problem is that of increasing rice production, and though the conversion of cultivable waste-lands into productive areas requires long-term development and substantial capital investment, much of the existing crop-land is capable of producing increased yields per acre with better farming methods. Better seed, more fertilisers, extended irrigation and effective protection from disease and insects could actually curb the rice shortage in the Far East.

Following the 1950 meeting of the International Rice Commission, which was established the preceding year within the framework of FAO, a cooperative scheme was organised for the hybridisation of *indica* and *japonica*

types of rice. Seed has been contributed by member-countries for experimental crossing, and the scientific work of hybridisation is being done by resident staff plant-breeders at several national experimental stations. This programme is supported in part from FAO funds and from the contributions of several governments.

Always with the aim of seeing that all peoples have enough to eat, FAO carries out an intensive programme of regional activities and individual country projects. By regional activities, the Organisation brings together groups of countries in the same region for joint efforts to attack important problems of common interest. Each year FAO has been doing more work of this kind; work that has been growing in importance as its effectiveness is proved.

Great possibilities exist in the Far East for expanded and better use of fisheries resources, with the object of making comparatively inexpensive high-quality protein foods available to millions of people whose diets are now extremely deficient in protein. The Indo-Pacific Fisheries Council, the regional organisation started and serviced by FAO, is concerned with improving fish production and distribution throughout the area by cooperation among governments, in much the same way as the International Rice Commission is concerned with improving rice production.

FAO has attached great importance to regional training courses, considering them as the most effective and

economical means of helping governments to improve their services. Technical workers of several countries go through brief periods of intensive study, and exchange information on the solution of everyday problems. FAO has organised several such courses all over the world.

The story of FAO's technical assistance work in individual South-East Asian countries can best be told country by country.

Much fighting and devastation occurred in Burma during the war, affecting particularly the livestock. Burma's 6 million livestock were greatly reduced, and even now there are only 4.5 million in the country. This in turn has hampered Burma's rice production by reducing the number of available draught animals. With this in mind, the Government has embarked on an improvement programme with the help of ECA and FAO, which includes the rehabilitation and expansion of its veterinary services. Since this programme will require three years' operation, FAO will give further assistance during the present year if funds are available.

The very valuable teak forests of Burma, which before the war brought in the greater part of Burma's foreign currency, are now insufficiently exploited, owing to the unsettled state of certain regions, and to the need for improved methods of logging and extraction. Much additional timber is needed for the Government's housing

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scheme, and in this field an FAO expert has already completed his advisory survey of the potentialities. Other FAO forestry experts, covering the commercial extraction and utilisation of forest products, have taken up their assignments.

FAO's programme for Ceylon includes assistance in Ceylon's agriculture development programme, which covers the improvement of dry farming practices applicable to the land settlement schemes in the North-Central Province. In addition, FAO will assist Ceylon in its plan to manufacture ammonium sulphate and superphosphate fertilisers.

An FAO fisheries expert, qualified as a fishing craft and gear technologist, is now working in Ceylon to advise and assist on various phases of the country's fisheries development plans. This involves the conversion and mechanisation of a large number of local fishing craft, and the extension of trawling, drift netting, dory fishing, and pareja fishing in an effort to increase the productivity of the industry and to demonstrate improved fishing practices to local fishermen.

Other technical assistance has been furnished to India by FAO in the field of agricultural mechanisation, under an agreement which provides for nine experts to operate in the State of Uttar Pradesh. Among these, two agricultural engineers are advising on operating tractors in the

field for large-scale land reclamation and cultivation in the Terai area within the State of Uttar Pradesh, and the FAO mechanisation expert is concerned with farm machinery. The WHO/FAO joint anti-malaria and food production project is being carried out in this area.

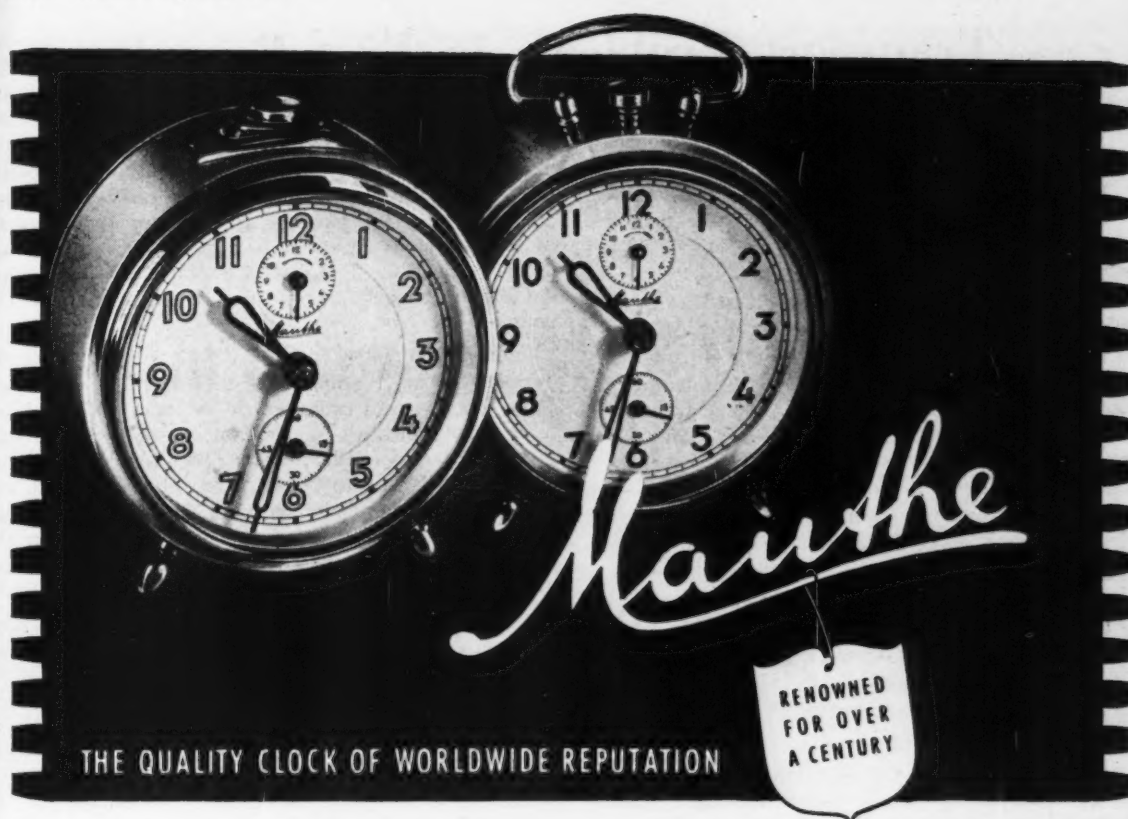
Several small power-driven machines have successfully been introduced into India, including rice-hullers, which have now extensively replaced old hand-methods. FAO experts are giving advice on units like this and technical assistance is also being furnished in the fields of plant-protection and ecology. The ecology expert will study the native grasslands, and initiate field experiments to determine the adaptation and forage value of native and introduced grasses and legumes, and the possibilities of ensilage.

In March 1950 the Indonesian Government asked for a UN exploratory Mission to determine the needs of the new state for technical assistance. Based on the report of the Mission, a comprehensive agreement was signed by the government and several UN agencies, providing for a number of long-term experts, three of whom, in the fields of agriculture and nutrition, have been supplied by FAO.

Owing to the low production of foodstuffs in Indonesia, nutrition edema and vitamin A deficiencies, which were seen among large sections of the population even before the war, have become more prevalent. FAO's nutrition expert recommended the study of protective and protein-containing local foods, at present not widely used. Canned fish products would be beyond the means of the average person, and the production of "pedah Siam" (dried fish) was advocated, as a source of supply of protein in the diet. The artificial culture of fish occupies 200,000 persons in Java alone, and is widespread among other countries of the Far East, including China and the Philippines. An FAO-sponsored school of fish-culture technique is shortly to be held in Djakarta. The introduction of fish-culture in these countries has been among the more successful FAO projects.

Of all the countries being assisted by FAO, agreements with Pakistan call for the largest number of experts. A very comprehensive programme covers land and water development, agricultural economics and marketing, fisheries, forestry, and animal diseases.

FAO experts are assisting in the formulation of a national land-water use programme and in the organisation of the necessary surveys and pilot-demonstration projects in East and West Pakistan. Preliminary studies of water-logged and salty lands were completed in November 1950 as part of FAO's regular programme. Pakistan's live-stock disease control and improvement schemes require the services of six FAO experts, the spending of approximately £12,000 in scientific equipment, and the provision of eight fellowships. The country is short of meat and milk, and requires better bullocks to work improved



farm equipment, and to furnish larger exports of hides and wool. The programme involves the production of vaccine, and a national campaign for the eradication of rinderpest which is causing £500,000 of recurring annual losses to the farmers of the country. The problem of foot and mouth disease and the control of animal parasites are included in the programme along with the basic rehabilitation of the poultry industry. The aim of the poultry projects is to increase this source of food, especially in West Pakistan, through improvement in local breeds, introduction of foreign breeds, disease control and improved husbandry. Three FAO fisheries experts are assisting in the planning and design of the fish harbour and associated marketing facilities at Karachi.

One of FAO's most successful enterprises has been the virtual eradication of rinderpest in Siam. Latest reports show that the country has been free from outbreaks for the past eighteen months, this being the first time in its history that a clear record could be shown. The vaccination campaign was carried out by Siamese veterinarians assisted by FAO technicians.

Poultry raising is widespread in Siam, nearly every household having a few chickens. The local birds are hardy but small, and their egg-yield is low, but imported varieties which would show faster growth and higher egg-yield have been nearly wiped out by epidemics, notably by Newcastle disease, fowl-pox and fowl cholera. To control this and to assist in the production of effective biologics, FAO is supplying a veterinarian and a poultry production expert.

Without planning and the integration of the various development and irrigation projects within the country, the maximum economic benefit would not be gained. The Siamese Government has therefore requested the services of an FAO agricultural economist who is already in the field, organising research into economic and social problems of agriculture and benefit-cost studies of the several development projects. Such study and organisation will increase farm incomes, since it is essential that increased agricultural production does not expose the farmer to the effects of adverse price-cycles, which would reduce his incentive.

# Transport Problems in East Bengal

*By a Special Correspondent*

**T**HE 42,000,000 inhabitants of Pakistan's East Bengal live almost in a world of their own. Few of them have any choice in the matter: not more than five per cent. live in communities larger than villages, and less than ten per cent. of the villages are accessible by a road of any kind. This means that more than 36,000,000 people in East Bengal—or more than four times Australia's total population—live in a village or on a farm completely unreachable by any sort of road. Although many East Bengali villages can be reached only by water, owing to the silting up of many channels most of these villages are accessible only during the flood season. One district, with a population of several millions, has neither a single mile of railway nor highway within its boundary. The majority of other districts do not possess any railway or any all-weather roads.

Transportation, in short, is a priority problem in East Bengal. Constant emphasis is given to this problem, and what may be done to meet it, in the report from FAO's technical assistance experts now advising the Pakistan Government on ways to expand and improve food production and distribution.

On the positive side, the importance of inland water transport in East Bengal cannot be over-estimated. Inland waterways form a 2,550-mile network of rivers and channels, along which is carried millions of tons of bulk freight a year.

The state-owned East Bengal Railway is small and poorly-equipped, and cannot be expected to contribute

much toward a solution of the area's transportation bottleneck. In addition, freight rates on the railway in general are very high. For example, the Director of Agriculture in Baluchistan pointed out to FAO experts that it cost more to send fruit from Quetta to Karachi by rail than it did to bring a similar amount from Australia to Karachi by boat.

Along the inland waterway system, the number of "country boats" (small, self-propelled boats) in use is no less than an estimated 30 million. These boats have plied from time immemorial on these rivers, while mechanically propelled crafts have been operating for over a century. The country boats which ply unrestricted and without any Government legislative control carry a vastly greater tonnage of goods annually than is moved by the combined resources of all mechanically propelled inland water transport operating in the Province.

The FAO mission found that the greatest and earliest improvement in East Bengal's transportation problem can come through waterways. At present there are only 2,202 miles of recognised waterways in East Bengal which are navigable for the whole year and 468 miles which are navigable during the monsoon season only. Due to short supply of dry weather flow and lack of proper river training works, the navigable channels are deteriorating rapidly. The province is, therefore, faced with a serious problem of dying rivers and spill channels.

To improve the waterway system, a plan costing an estimated Rs. 187,600,000 (U.S.\$39,396,000) has been prepared. The experts believe the waterway improvement project would pay its way, and perhaps more, since it is expected that the Province of East Bengal can levy a toll for the use of the improved waterways, probably in the form of a tax on keeping country boats, and a surcharge tax on passenger fares and freights of goods. Receipts from these sources are estimated at about Rs. 15,000,000 (about U.S.\$3,500,000) yearly.

The FAO technical assistance mission points out that the proposed waterways will follow the old river beds, among others the old Brahmaputra river along Kushtia Mymensingh district, the Gordi river along Kushtia district and the dying North Bengal rivers. These old river beds can play an important part in developing the irrigation and water power scheme for the country. Projects include irrigation schemes, drainage plans and power developments. As the FAO experts put it, "with the help of artificial irrigation nearly the whole cultivable area of East Bengal, which is more or less under one crop, can be made to yield two or even three crops. With rotation of crops it will undoubtedly be possible to offer a



*Country-made boats in East Bengal*



solution of the acute problem of growing fodder for the 15 million cattle on which the development of agriculture much depends." Further, with local drainage and the help of a copious supply of sweet water, it will be possible, not only to maintain the tidal channels permanently, but also to push down the salt water limit and extend cultivation more and more towards the sea-face even without

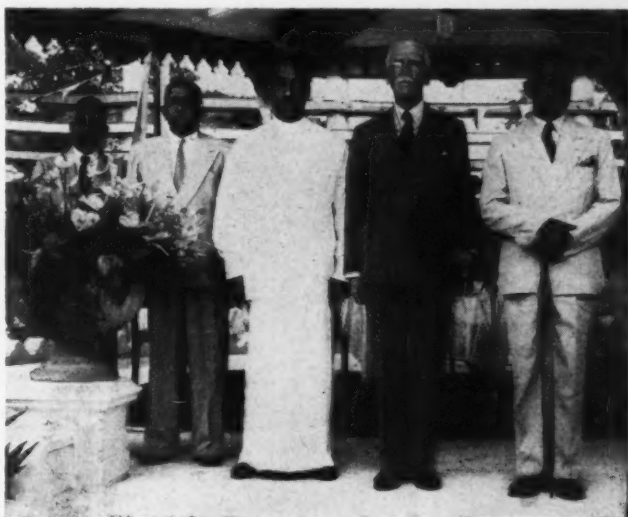
embankments. Also, the FAO experts see the possibility of developing, as a by-product of the waterway system, low-drop water power on a large scale.

Above all, the improved waterway system will help to eliminate the transportation bottleneck in East Bengal, and bring the isolated villagers and farmers into closer contact with each other and the outer world.

## COLOMBO PLAN EXHIBITION

THE biggest and most spectacular exhibition ever held in the East was opened on February 23rd at Victoria Park, Colombo, by Lord Soulbury, Governor-General of Ceylon. The countries taking part in the Exhibition were the United Kingdom and its territories in South-East Asia, Canada, Australia, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, the U.S.A., Indonesia, Viet Nam, Laos and the Maldiv Islands. The national pavilions of these countries display the basic features of the Colombo Plan, and the exhibitors vied with each other to present a realistic picture of their achievements to date. In the form of diagrams, panels and working models, the Exhibition showed the Colombo Plan in action. The design of the national pavilions ranged from the age-old Kandyan architecture of the Ceylonese Pavilion to the modernistic blue and white facade of that of the United Kingdom. In the latter, exhibits ranged from a giant-size prime mover to the smallest steel tube in the world, and striking panels emphasised the vast resources of South-East Asia and also the basic needs of the region which led to the conception of the Colombo Plan. These are mainly the food shortage aggravated by the growth of population at the rate of 20,000 per day, disease, poverty, illiteracy, lack of communication, war damage and low productivity. The United Kingdom's contribution to the Colombo Plan is depicted in three main stages: the supply of machines and materials, the financing of projects and industrialisation and the provision of experts and training facilities.

Australia, one of the most vigorous exponents of the Colombo Plan from the start, showed some of her resources which are being made available for the recipient countries, and Canada, which has approved £8.5 million for capital equipment and £135,000 for technical cooperation for the first year of the plan, showed some of her achievements in science, industry and agriculture which can be utilised by other members of the Colombo Plan. Ceylon, in her striking pavilion, emphasised the importance of rubber, tea and coconut for her national economy and exhibited her achievements in education, agriculture



*At the opening ceremony of the Colombo Exhibition. H.E. The Governor-General (centre), with (left to right) Sir Oliver Goonetilleke, Hon. Mr. J. R. Jayawardena, and Sir John Kotalawala*

and social services. A huge model of the Sukkar barrage and smaller models of the Warsak and Swat schemes were prominent features of the Pakistan Pavilion, while the Indian Pavilion included a wide range of India's industrial products, showing that she is the most industrially advanced among the recipient countries. The Federation of Malaya, Singapore, N. Borneo, Sarawak and Brunei, in a composite pavilion, displayed their common aim to broaden their economies and to pave the way for new industries by improving communications and by utilising water power resources. Indonesia, not yet a full member of the Colombo Plan Consultative Committee, was represented by an imposing structure with a five-pillared gateway symbolising the five main principles of her constitution. She exhibited exquisite samples of her handicrafts, painting and dance forms. Viet Nam and Laos, represented by individual pavilions, showed their respective resources and achievements. Both countries face serious problems resulting from war damage. Laos is now planning to build her first railway. Amongst the Maldivian exhibits were handicrafts typical of these islands: lacquer work, coir rope mats, silver and gold lace and wooden toys and sea shells of great beauty.

# The ILO and Technical Assistance for Asia

By Ed Allen (Geneva)

**T**HE International Labour Organisation, bringing together experts on manpower and industrial problems from nearly 50 countries, is now playing an important part in helping the economic development of South-East Asia and the Far East.

The basic aim of the ILO, one of the specialised agencies of the United Nations, is to raise living standards throughout the world and to secure peace through social justice.

The reason for the expansion of the ILO activities in the technical assistance field is simple. The ILO deals with fundamental problems which lie close to the foundations of modern industrial and agricultural operations. Its programme aims at giving new skills to unskilled workers and re-training skilled workers so that they may produce and earn more.

ILO technical assistance experts have shown how to improve cloth production methods in India, how to organise handicrafts in Burma and Ceylon, how to exploit raw materials still unused in Siam and how to organise employment exchanges and vocational training institutions in Pakistan.

The ILO also helps under-developed countries with training facilities and advice on other basic requirements of modern industrial life. These include schemes for social security, labour statistics, labour inspection, co-operatives, wages policy, labour legislation and so forth.

The ILO believes that one of the ways to serve its cardinal purpose of promoting world economic and social progress is to improve the skill and versatility of the world's workers. And skill is one of Asia's vital needs.

From the ILO headquarters in Geneva, technical assistance missions are sent to all parts of the world. From its Asian Manpower Field Office in Bangalore, India, training and employment missions are sent throughout South-East Asia. Plans are in hand for opening a second Field Office in Asia to deal with cooperative activities.

Inspiration for this programme comes not only from the 65 member governments of the ILO, but also from the world's employers and trade unions. For the ILO, unique among the specialised agencies clustered around the United Nations, is composed not only of Government delegates but also of representatives of labour and management.

During 1952 the ILO programme of aid to South-East Asian countries is roughly as follows:

**AFGHANISTAN:** Eleven ILO experts are to advise the Afghan Government on a wide range of projects including a survey of manpower for development projects, management in textile and sugar industries, training of workers, labour legislation and welfare, as well as advice on the establishment of cooperatives and cottage industries. Twelve ILO fellowships are also to be awarded to Afghan nationals.

**BURMA:** Eighteen ILO experts are to advise Burma on problems ranging from the mechanisation of cottage industries to manpower survey in industry and agriculture. Also included are advice on the setting up of a wages policy and minimum wage-fixing machinery in agriculture and the establishment of employment exchanges. Burmese technicians are to be given vocational training in inland water transport, so important to the country's economy. Two experts are already at work helping the country to draw up a social security plan for its workers.

**CEYLON:** Aid to Ceylon covers 21 experts and 20 fellowships. Problems covered include training in handicrafts, productivity in specific industries, investigation of the causes of unemployment and under-employment in urban and rural areas, planning and organisation of labour welfare services and cooperative organisation. Of the ILO experts already in Ceylon, one is conducting a basic manpower survey and the other is helping in the



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training of craftsmen in the Minnerya region as part of a wider project of fundamental education.

**INDIA:** India is to be provided with the services of 20 experts and with some 30 fellowships. The programme covers expert advice on productivity, the system of payment by results, industrial relations, training of plantation workers, and appraisal of the results of the Indian Agricultural Labour Enquiry.

**INDONESIA:** Seven experts and six fellowships are earmarked for Indonesia under the ILO technical assistance programme. The aid covers labour policy and productivity, cooperation and rural credit, basic education and handicrafts, and the organisation of employment services and occupational classification system.

**KOREA:** Two experts are to advise on rehabilitation of the civilian population.

**PAKISTAN:** Twenty-six ILO experts are to advise the Pakistan Government on problems ranging from State social insurance and labour administration to rural under-employment and cottage and small-scale industries. The ILO is already assisting Pakistan with technical training in setting up a repair workshop for Government-owned road transport vehicles and in formulating a training programme for maintenance personnel. Assistance for a pilot project for the resettlement of refugees is under negotiation. Twelve fellowships have been earmarked for Pakistan nationals.

**PHILIPPINES:** The Philippines are to receive seven ILO experts and three fellowships, mainly for the development of cottage industries.

**SINGAPORE:** Two ILO experts have recently been advising the Singapore administration in the establishment of an Employees' Provident Fund Scheme.

**SIAM:** Six ILO experts and six fellowships, covering social security, labour survey, vocational training and handicrafts have been allocated. An ILO expert recently surveyed raw materials freely available in some parts of Siam which have not yet been fully utilised for small-scale industries. Another expert is busy developing schools for training in practical occupations.

**VIET NAM:** Two experts and two fellowships are being provided for vocational training and labour inspection.

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## THE CHARTERED BANK OF INDIA, AUSTRALIA AND CHINA

**T**HE Ninety-Eighth Ordinary General Meeting of the Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China was held in London on April 2.

The following is an extract from the statement by the Chairman, Mr. V. A. Grantham circulated with the report and accounts for the year 1951:—

Again this year the accounts indicate a further expansion of the Bank's business, and the total of the balance sheet at £213,632,879 is the largest we have ever shown, as it exceeds the figure for last year by £20,030,239. The net profits for the year are £697,097, an increase of £64,290 over those of last year, which themselves reflected an even greater increase over those for 1949. We paid an interim dividend in September last of 7 per cent., less income tax, and it is proposed that, out of the balance now available, a final Dividend of 7 per cent., less income tax, should be paid.

We recognise, and are alive to, the threat inherent in the present political situation in the Far East; but, as our interests are purely economic, we can only hope that the counsels of peace will prevail and that we shall be permitted to carry on our normal function of assisting trade and commerce in the Far East without interruption or molestation.

**CHINA.**—Our Shanghai Office remains open for the time being. A great exodus of foreigners has taken place from Shanghai and China generally, and we are handling very little business now, even in Shanghai.

**INDIA.**—While external developments inevitably left their impress upon the Indian economy during the year, there has been within the country an all-round increase in industrial production, due to an improvement in labour conditions, better transport facilities and a greater availability of raw materials, especially cotton and jute. On the other hand, production of food has not come up to expectations or requirements and, in spite of all that is being done to enlarge the country's capacity for growing food, the task of making India self-supporting in this direction, already almost insuperable, is one of ever-increasing magnitude due to the perpetually rising tide of population.

In February, 1951, India accepted the official par value of the Pakistan Rupee, thus removing one bone of contention between the two countries, although of necessity exchange control has had to be instituted.

**PAKISTAN.**—During 1951, Pakistan enjoyed a reasonable prosperity, in spite of

some final reduction in the prices of the country's main products, cotton and jute, on which it depends for economic stability. Pakistan is one of the many countries throughout the world having a vulnerable economy due to over-dependence upon a few exportable commodities; but, last year, as a result of favourable prices for both cotton and jute, which together represented about 85 per cent. in value of total exports in the year ended June 30th, 1951, a substantial favourable balance of trade was achieved, which left ample margin for the import of the first instalments of machinery and plant for the new industries which it is planned to set up, with a view to diversifying the economy and rendering the country less dependent upon imported manufactured goods. As the year wore on, and specifically in the period July to September, Pakistan's balance of payments deteriorated to the extent that a substantial deficit was incurred which, however, will probably turn out to be no more than a temporary phenomenon.

For some years past I have recorded my opinion that the economies of Pakistan and India were complementary, and that the prosperity of both countries depended in some considerable degree upon the two countries working together, India supplying, *inter alia*, manufactured goods, while utilising Pakistan's cotton and jute to produce them. This remains the ideal arrangement, of course, but it is becoming clearly apparent that, in spite of India's agreement to accept the present parity of the Pakistan Rupee, the exchange of commodities and goods between the two countries is still far below the levels which might reasonably have been hoped for, and that Pakistan is determinedly building up industries which are intended to have the effect of rendering the country free from the necessity of importing extensively from her great neighbour. At first glance this procedure would appear to augur well for the future of Pakistan, but independence of the nature envisaged must always be purchased at some cost to the country, for no matter how efficiently the new manufacturing industries are planned and worked, they will find it difficult, if not impossible, to compete on level terms with the industries of other nations, including India, which have the advantage of catering for world markets from the privileged position conferred by the existence of an extensive home market.

**BURMA.**—Until security in the districts can be improved, little further progress in stepping-up production of paddy (rice) to pre-war levels is possible. On the other hand the import market, which was flooded toward the close of the year 1950 with textile goods imported under Open General Licence conditions, has remained somewhat stagnant until recently when, with the advent of the harvest, the offtake

has improved. Economically, however, Burma has not suffered greatly from the effects of this over-importing, and the overall position remains much as it was when I last addressed you.

**CEYLON.**—Again, as in the two previous years, a fair measure of prosperity has been enjoyed by Ceylon, and for this blessing the Island is indebted to the continued flow at reasonable prices of the staple exportable products of the country: tea, rubber, coconuts, copra and spices. The position of the Central Bank of Ceylon, and therefore of the Currency, is thus very strong.

**MALAYA.**—The 1951 overall surplus in visible trade is set at Straits \$1,268,000,000 (£148,000,000), compared with Straits \$1,066,000,000 (£124,370,000) for 1950.

I can, perhaps, best sum up the position in Singapore and the Federation of Malaya by saying that, after a year of almost unprecedented prosperity, the future is most uncertain, and dependent as ever upon the price of rubber and to a less extent upon the price of tin. In view of the present political conditions in the Far East, and of the struggle in Malaya, it would appear to be vital to the interests of the United Nations that support should be extended to Malaya at least, to the extent that full employment on the Rubber Estates can be maintained.

**THAILAND.**—Exports of rice of over 14 million tons aided by remunerative prices for tin and rubber ensured a further strengthening of the country's already favourable external balances, and the result was a steady appreciation in the value of the tical against both Sterling and the United States dollar.

**HONG KONG.**—The industries mainly affected by the American embargo, are those using imported cotton, tin plate and rubber. The cotton mills, dependent as they now are upon imports of Pakistan cotton, which is considerably dearer than American cotton, find themselves unable to compete with Japanese produced yarn made from the cheaper American cotton with which Japan is liberally supplied, so much so that Japan has largely supplanted Hong Kong as an exporter of cotton yarn and piece goods to China. Recently it was reported that as many as 15,000 cotton mill workers were unemployed, and Hong Kong's difficulties in this respect were accentuated by similar conditions in the other trades chiefly affected by the American embargo.

One major development, unforeseen at first, has been the extent to which China has been turning to Russia for more and more of her requirements, and although the trade between Hong Kong and the China mainland remains considerable, it is no longer so confidently accepted that China could not do without Hong Kong's assistance in trading with the outside World.

## THE NATIONAL BANK OF INDIA LIMITED

Statement by the Chairman, J. K. Michie, Esq., at the Annual General Meeting, held on April 1st, 1952.

THE accounts for the year 1951, now presented, again show increased figures, the total of the Consolidated Balance sheet having risen to £147,283,674 from £133,404,121 at December 31st, 1950.

Grindlays Bank Ltd. had a satisfactory year and we are well pleased with their progress. Our Finance and Development Corporation continues to meet the functions for which it was created.

In India, 1951 was another year of difficulty—crops generally and foodgrains in particular being adversely affected by a poor monsoon. I am glad to say the food situation has been considerably relieved by shipments of wheat from the United States of America largely financed by loans. This policy of assistance, I notice, is again likely to be adopted by the United States this year.

Fortunately, trade between India and Pakistan continues to flow fairly freely to the advantage of both.

I am glad to see that the Government of India has recently halved the export duty on manufactured jute goods.

In common with many other countries India is short of capital for industrial development, and I am glad to see that following a visit to India by its president, Mr. Eugene Black, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development is likely to make a considerable loan to India for this purpose.

Economically, Pakistan has enjoyed a very successful year although her import markets are still suffering from a surfeit of supplies bought early in 1951. She is fortunate in having no food problems and is now bending her energies and using her resources to expand her industries. Jute and cotton mills and vegetable oil plants are only a few of the developments in train.

The new port of Chalna in East Pakistan has handled a considerable volume of trade during the year and is likely to expand further.

The trade and revenue of Ceylon continues to be buoyant although the considerably lower prices for rubber and copra now prevailing will doubtless show up in 1952. The construction work of the Colombo harbour development plan is well begun and is proceeding satisfactorily.

There is no great change to note about Burma except that the economic position tends to improve.

Export prices continue to rise. Importers of textiles into Burma will certainly hope for a better rice season as very large stocks are being carried at costs which today must show heavy losses. As in other Eastern markets the incidence of Japanese competition is now being felt.

The year has been noteworthy for progress in discussions by the Government of Burma with certain major industries in furtherance of her objective of achieving joint ownership. An agreement has now been concluded with the Burma Corporation and I understand negotiations have reached an advanced stage in regard to the oil industry.

Last year I mentioned the "Colombo plan" conceived with the object of raising one thousand million pounds to be spent over a period of six years in developing the food and other resources of certain countries in South-East Asia. Since the original plans were formulated the United States of America, Burma and Indo-China have become full members, and I am glad to learn that a meeting at Ministerial level is to be held at Karachi at the end of this month to review progress and to look at the future.

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## THE HONG KONG AND SHANGHAI BANKING CORPORATION

Satisfactory Outcome of Year's Operations.

The Hon. Sir Arthur Morse on The Colombo Plan.

THE ordinary yearly general meeting of The Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation was held on March 7th at the head office, 1, Queen's Road, Central, Hong Kong.

The Hon. Sir Arthur Morse, C.B.E., the chairman, who presided, said in the course of his speech: The net profit for the year, after making transfers to reserves for contingencies, amounts to H.K.\$17,283,671, which slightly exceeds the corresponding figure for the previous year. The total available for distribution amounts to H.K.\$23,982,895. Out of this total it is recommended that, as in previous years, a sum of H.K.\$3,000,000 be written off bank premises, and after allowing for this amount, the interim dividend of £2 per share and the final dividend of £3 per share which is now proposed, there remains a balance of H.K.\$8,075,332 to be carried forward to next year.

### *An All-time Record*

The total now exceeds £254 millions, an increase of £38½ millions over last year's total and an all-time record in the history of the Bank.

Current and other accounts which now amount to almost £196 millions continue to reflect the steady expansion in our business which has been in evidence during the past years.

### *High Price of Peace*

"Peace becomes Expensive" was the apt title used by The Times for the main editorial in its Review of the year 1951. I think that these three words sum up very adequately one of the main economic features of the past year. Rearmament turned out to be a bigger burden than had been expected. The dollar gap yawned wider and deeper than anyone had foreseen and the crisis was clearly revealed in all its seriousness when Mr. Churchill's new Government took office in November.

Now Great Britain is preparing to face the grim task of closing the gap. The Commonwealth and Colonial Empire must, of course, bear their share of the burden and help to pay the high price of peace. The Commonwealth Finance Ministers agreed in London last January to stand solidly by the sterling area, starting with drastic, realistic and far-reaching measures to stop the drain upon gold reserves, but ending with expansion and development of the great resources of that widespread area. The Chancellor of the Exchequer said that there was no sign of any of the countries of the Commonwealth wishing to leave the sterling area. The final aim and the lasting solution of the problem is one which will make sterling freely convertible into all the main currencies of the world and will drive on to the position, for which we all so greatly hope, when restrictions and controls can be cast to the winds.

### *Far East*

But so far as the Far East is concerned and while the war continues in Korea, and even after peace comes (for I fear that in the foreseeable future the tension is unlikely to ease much in the East any more than in the West) currency difficulties will remain and we are unlikely to get back to those happy days of almost unrestricted freedom of trade. Even if political developments in the East get no worse, it is difficult to see how stability can be expected while there is inflationary spending and incompetence on the part of Governments and a sad lack of law and order in many areas. Yet so long as there is a demand for the products of these areas and while they continue to fetch good prices, a fair volume of trade should continue and an improvement should come as and when political conditions take a turn for the better.

One of the most striking features of the post-war years has been the way in which through international agencies or otherwise the countries blessed with a relatively high standard of living have made efforts to bring aid to the less developed territories throughout the world. The United Nations, the United States and the British Commonwealth have been prominent in such activities.

### *The Colombo Plan*

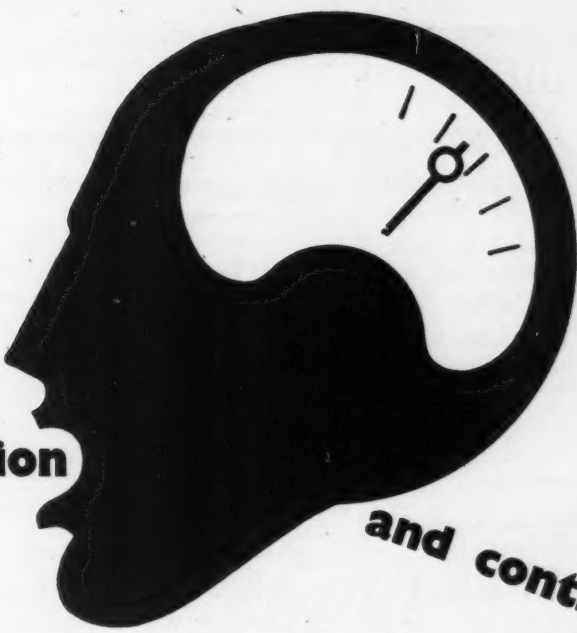
I made a reference in my last statement to the Colombo Plan which was initiated at the meeting in Colombo of the Foreign Ministers of the Commonwealth countries over two years ago. In July last the main

plan of development was launched but in January 1951, a Council of Technical Co-operation had already been set up in Colombo as an integral part of the whole idea. Real progress has been made with this particular scheme which provides technical experts and technical training for Asian personnel needed to carry through the projects adopted by the several countries whose development plans have been set forth in the Colombo Plan report. The original report which was published in November, 1950, no longer accurately describes the scheme of things as now existent. The Commonwealth Consultative Committee has become an international committee in which the United States are taking part, and included in the general scope of the "plan" are the extensive measures undertaken by the United States Government in the same area, such as some of the "Point Four" projects, certain parts of ECA aid (now Mutual Security Administration) and various International Bank and Export-Import Bank loans wherever any of these touch the planned programmes of the participating countries. It is significant and important that the present emphasis in the whole area should be on agricultural development or plans which will in the main benefit the rural economy of these areas. I heartily welcome this trend of events. I am convinced that it is a mistake to hasten industrialisation and after all it is hardly surprising that the dominant aspect of planning policy should have turned towards agriculture and food, seeing that more than half of the population of the world get barely half of the calories they need. Thus the Colombo Plan has become an aggregation of various aid projects for the whole of South and South-East Asia. The launching of the original scheme served a valuable purpose in calling attention to the urgent needs of the under-developed countries in the area, which, if neglected, would inevitably result in political and revolutionary discontent or revolts against the established authorities. I have referred in some detail to this matter because the plans and projects now being pressed forward are especially important both economically and politically to the areas where our Bank operates.

Finally, I feel sure that shareholders will wish me to thank the staff of the bank for the very satisfactory result of the past year's operations.

The report and accounts were adopted.




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## CHROMIUM

*THE* only workable source of the element chromium is chromite, a compound of chromium, iron and oxygen mined in Russia, Africa and Turkey. Chromium is known everywhere as the plating on taps, hardware and motor fittings, but it has other and more important applications. Alloyed with steel, for example, it imparts superior strength and surface hardness, and it is from chromium that stainless steel derives its resistance to corrosion. As well as being the source of chromium, crude chromite ore is used to make heat-resisting firebricks and cements for the construction of furnaces. Chromium derives its name from the Greek "χρῶμα", meaning colour,

because its compounds are almost always coloured. Known as chrome pigments, some of these—the chromates of lead, zinc and barium for example—are used extensively for colouring paints, linoleum, rubber and ceramics. Chromium sulphate is important in tanning, and potassium dichromate in the dyeing of wool, silk and leather. Other chromium compounds are used in photography and in the manufacture of safety matches.

I.C.I. makes a complete range of chrome pigments for the paint, linoleum and rubber industries, besides employing chromium compounds as catalysts in the manufacture of aviation petrol and methanol, an industrial alcohol.



